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ABSTRACT

This issue is comprised of a series of articles dealing with adult education in Asia and the South Pacific. Included in the issue are the following articles: "Thoughts for the Advancement of Women's Project" by Sally Bruce Seddon; "Adult Education Program for Working Women in Kumi Industrial Area" by Yoon Bok-Nam; "Needs Identification: The Gateway to Success in Adult Education" by Dominic M. Mutava; "Study Analysis of the Learning Fund" by Umberto Sihombing; "Nonformal Education in Indonesia" by A. Surjadi; "Training of Trainers: An Experience" by Seemantinee Khot; and "Who Teaches Who?" by Brian Lee. (MN)

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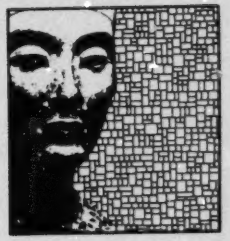

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Cover Photo: Sri Lankan Rice Farmers
UN Photo issued by FAO

P. 14 : Indonesian Learning Fund group doing Basket Weaving. Photo by Helen Brennan

P. 28 : Burmese Farmers: UN Photo issued by FAO

Sally Bruce Seddon has been working in two communities in PNG, one in the Oksapmin Subdistrict of West Sepik Province and the other in Pangia, Southern Highlands Province. Sheldon G. Weeks, Director of the Education Research Unit, University of Papua New Guinea says, "This paper is a brief summary of comments made by Sally Bruce Seddon at a seminar in Mendi. What she has to say will not be news to anyone who is involved in village development or the promotion of community projects. Concepts like 'felt needs' are familiar to most extension workers, but seem to be forgotten as people rush to get on the band wagon and add to their list of projects. The problems involved in approaching 'development' as handouts instead of recognizing that change begins with people are seen again in her examples. What she does here is to remind us of the concerns that are required, the pre-requisites that need to be considered, if development projects are to amount to anything more than another item on an annual report".

THOUGHTS FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN'S PROJECT

Sally Bruce Seddon
Education Research Unit,
University of Papua New Guinea.

THOUGHTS FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN'S PROJECTS

Much money has been and will be spent on women's projects throughout Papua New Guinea. To date, many of these projects have since crumbled due to a variety of often ill-conceived fundamental errors or tragedies. Statements like " ..but the project had so much money - how could it have failed? What happened?" are often heard in development offices and among government personnel. This paper has been written in response to the present state of women's development and to assist in the upgrading of women's projects and related policy. It attempts to clarify many of the constraints on rural women and poses suggestions as to how projects can, through better planning, more effectively serve women and communities in general and be stronger, more lasting. The considerations listed in this paper are based on two years of fieldwork (1982-1983) in Oksapmin, West Sepik and Pangia, Southern Highlands, during which time the author worked in baking, sewing, gardening and literacy projects.

For ease of reading and organization the considerations are grouped under seven major areas: conception of project finances, ownership, leadership, membership and participation, time allocation, and markets. It may be helpful for the leaders of projects as well as outsiders such as development personnel, the women's welfare or project officer, and agencies lending or giving money to projects, to at least become aware of the problems and considerations listed below.

CONCEPTION OF PROJECT

Who

First of all, whose idea is the project? One which is imposed on the village women often has poor results because the people may be unaware of the "need" for that project, or do not believe in it enough to sacrifice time and effort for it. It is preferable that the project be conceived by the people themselves; being a seed they plant and water. True grass-roots development will more likely succeed if this fundamental is considered.

Location

Second it helps if the project is in a good location in relation to other factors: nearness to markets, women, and resources (water, gardening land etc). The closer it is to the women's residences the greater participation will be.

Support

Does the project have the support of the whole community? It is especially important that men, children, and non-members be supportive. Men still control their wives' movements and choices to a great extent, so when husbands are not pleased they usually do not let their wives attend. Also male support is crucial because when it comes to constructing the project's buildings or equipment the men may play a considerable part. It is also possible for the projects to be vandalized by roving children or rascals who have little respect or interest in what the women are doing. In Poloko village of Pangia a several thousand Kina Community Centre was built for the youth and women but was later vandalized beyond repair. Then the women's group had nowhere to go and ceased their work.

Aim of Project

What is the aim of the project? Will it teach purely skills and knowledge? Or be a cash-earning enterprise? Improve nutrition? Community development? If the aim of the project is clearly defined the people can set their expectations accordingly. In Oksapmin the baking project started teaching women how to bake but when they mastered this the emphasis shifted to cash-earning. Because of high demand for the bread, this shift did not ruin the project.

If the project primarily teaches, are there enough resources that all members can participate? In sewing classes for example this maybe a problem as machines are costly and difficult to transport. In our Poloko sewing project we only had one machine between ten of us so the women either had to patiently take turns on it or sew by hand. Waiting was elongated by the fact that they did not know how to use the machine and so painstakingly had to be taught on an individual basis. Needless to say this dampened the women's motivation and pointed to the need to work in smaller groups which rotated on a daily or weekly basis.

The aim of the project may influence how resources and materials are acquired. If it is a teaching project which will eventually fade into women's individual enterprises, investment in communal land and equipment may be unwise. In my experience this has become an issue as the project needs to have its own land and equipment or else risk the difficulties brought about by personal ownership discussed later in the paper. When possible, sometimes the best option is for the women themselves to give the resources. In the case of the Poloko gardening project the women made raised beds but then refused to spare the bean, peanut seeds and aibica stalks for planting (they wanted to sell their seeds). If this had been made clear from the start, the women might have cancelled the project or set their expectations differently, and in either case their work would not have been in vain. The above case also points to the before-mentioned importance of the women themselves wanting or needing the project. Of course, if the project does not have a definite end or is under the auspices of a women's club, it is worthwhile to secure land, machines etc.

Expectations

Expectations of women: do the women expect rewards in cash or kind from the project? If so are these expected to be immediate (on a daily or weekly basis) or long-term (monthly, yearly, or

at the end of an agricultural cycle)? Obviously even the minimal expectation involves some kind of benefit. Are these benefits to be enjoyed by individuals or the club as a whole? Are participants willing to work for "nothing" (little or no immediate return)? Experience with baking and sewing projects has shown that it is better to have rewards on an individual, measurable (visible), and immediate basis otherwise women will complain that they are not getting "paid" for their work and time. This is the cause of a high drop-out rate in projects; the women are disillusioned due to unreal expectations or a fault in the project's planning and leave without notice. If only the group or club is to benefit this needs to be a clear expectation from the start of the project.

MONEY/FINANCES

The Leaders

It is helpful to have a responsible literate women to look after the project money. A grade-six leaver or someone who can do basic arithmetic and bookkeeping is preferable as without this the project is likely to experience financial troubles that could lead to its ruin or be forced to depend on a mission or other body for management. Also if money is not accounted for it can be easily stolen or misused.

Source of Capital

Where is initial capital for starting the project going to come from (members or participants themselves? Or from a development fund from a donor agency or the PNG Government)? After the project has started it is dangerous to use fund money to maintain it because this creates inner weakness and dependency. It discourages self-sufficiency and when the money finishes what will the people do if they've not learned before to support the project by other means? Part of this weakness is an attitude that villagers may adopt such as "the government will give it to us. They will look after the project. If the government doesn't help us then forget it, we can't do it ourselves". This attitude limits other projects which could be undertaken by the people themselves. This gets back to the point that people must want the project enough to make the leap and sacrifice for it. The Poloko Women's Club was started by and run on money which was given to their government through the Village Development Centre in Pangia. When the five-year money supply ended, so did the women's village projects because the extension workers from the VDC stopped patrolling to the villages.

Use of Profit

What to do with the project profits: communalize it? pay individuals? Pay yearly dividends? Buy more equipment (re-invest)? It is advisable not to use project money to pay members or non-members to work for the project (for example if people refuse to work without pay). In the past when this was tried the work did not get done at the expected time and the money put aside for wages was exhausted. We could not ask the people to start working for free after they'd been getting paid for the same work. In other words, money sets a difficult precedent. If the people believe that the project will benefit them somehow in the long run, they'll usually be willing to work for it without pay.

For sewing projects, what has worked well is to attach to each garment a women sews, a small producer's profit (20 to 40 toea) which she can draw from the club account at any time provided she has written her name and what garment she produced in the club book. In this way, rewards are immediate, visible, and individualized.

OWNERSHIP

Individual or Group Ownership

Are the project's equipment, land and buildings owned by one individual, family or clan, or are these things to be the property of all participants? Obviously the two areas of ownership can overlap if it is a family or clan project.

Problems Brought About by Male Ownership

When it comes to this area women usually face a major obstacle; they are neither the major cash-earners (depends on how isolated the community is) nor the root owners of land, trees, and buildings. In this situation I have seen women accept the help of men who have contacts with the government, council, or who have access to other funds, or even accept equipment lent to them and then are at the mercy of the owner. When equipment is loaned, the owner usually obtains at least indirect control over the project. In this case ownership can be misconstrued as leadership and this can then lead to serious mismanagement of funds or resources. In the case of Poloko the women resorted to seeking the assistance from two male councillors and the vocational centre to acquire a building, land and supplies. After several years, the

councillor who had "given" land and a house to them became "Papa" of the project, using the project's name to pull in more money (which the women claim they never saw), and controlling the resources and activities of the group. The women finally grew tired of being at the mercy of his whims and accused him of stealing money that was given to him by outside grants. Some women started to drop out. The councillor threatened to take back the house if the women continued to be "lazy" or otherwise show a lack of interest.

It can also be expected that if the resources (especially houses and machines) are owned by one person the project activities will probably have to bend around the owner's schedule.

Effective Leaders

Leadership should be enough to effectively oversee and help all participants so that they do not leave out of discouragement or boredom.

Respected Leaders

It is helpful that the leader be respected by the group. Often this means choosing a leader from a traditionally respected family, in addition to fulfilling the above criteria. The benefit of having an 'as ples' respected leader is that she will likely follow a more traditional or suitable mode of decision making. Overall, she is likely to be more sensitive to the particular needs of the women than an outsider would be.

MEMBERSHIP AND PARTICIPATION

Status of Participants

Are the majority of the participants married or single? As can be seen from the above discussion, this can affect participation. If the majority are single there can be expected a turnover in membership. The question is can the project still sustain itself under this condition?

Degree of Exclusiveness

Is participation in the project exclusive, meaning is membership required in order to participate or can participants

come and go at will? This is important because it influences the organization and finances of the club. A steady core group, responsible for the maintenance of the project will more likely do a better job than people who are allowed to participate on an un-organized sporadic basis.

Clan vs. Mixed Membership

Are participants drawn along clan lines? This is advisable to ensure peace among the participants, unless the women show interest in obtaining a "mixed" or diverse membership. Many rural projects have failed because of internal strife between women from different (traditionally) enemy clans or villages. In the rural areas these divisions may still be alive and important though not immediately visible to the outsider. The Poloko Women's Club for example was the 'big name' for accually two women's groups. The government and Village Development Centre recognized just ONE club, however, and accordingly gave money in the name of one club. This money went into one bank account. Years later after the club had crumbled, when we tried to revive it, the women made it clear that they did not want to keep working together and that two distinct clubs should be formed; they claimed they never had gotten along before so why change things? The problem remained of how to divide the money when one group thought it had exclusive rights to that money. If the planners in the beginning had only recognized that women's groups are best represented in the form of two clubs and projects and thus two accounts, this problem could have been avoided. As it was no attention was paid to the "mixed" aspect of the membership and this is still causing problems today though the two groups have officially split.

TIME ALLOCATION

Subsistence Work of Women

Women spend most of their working hours doing subsistence chores; indeed this is their primary role as wives a reason why many projects in the past have been directed exclusively towards unmarried girls. By designing the project's schedule (especially if project becomes multi-faceted) it is important to remember that women's chores demand daily, continual inputs of time and labour, unlike a man's which are usually completed in shorter more specific time periods and are often done communally. Women should, therefore, not be expected to spare more than four to six hours a week in the project. Male migration may also influence the amount of time women spend in non-subsistence activities.

Children

A major constraint upon a woman's time is a nursing child. Children at this stage are too young to play with each other very well or for an interval long enough for their mothers to concentrate on something else. They need frequent feeding and so will interrupt their mothers, even hit them with sticks or stones to get their attention. Unfortunately, because breast milk is a basic food for children for at least two years, the mother and child cannot be separated for long amounts of time, hence the idea of a nursery is impractical. Both the sewing and literacy projects in the West Sepik and the sewing project in Poloko suffered continually from interference from children. A mother would no sooner get her garment on the machine, when her child would holler, and thus obligate her to come feed him or clean up his excreta.

Projects Schedules

It is important that the project schedule be flexible and not conflict with already existing popular village events such as religious meetings and market days.

MARKETS

Demand and Location

If the projects is to be supported by items produced and sold by the women, it is preferable that there be a demand and the market(s) be near or accessible by cheap transport.

Local Demand

What is local demand? In our sewing project in Pangia, it was discovered that people will only buy machine-sewn clothes (hand-sewn clothes are not even considered), and the people's tastes vary. Even locally machine-sewn clothes do not compete with the vast quantities of second-hand clothes which are sold at the Pangia market. Our baking project too has been unsuccessful because people do not like yeast bread as much as fried "flour" (the latter can be eaten without condiments).

In Oksapmin, West Sepik the demand for clothes whether machine or hand-sewn, and for scones (yeast, bread or fried) was tremendous. People did not seem to think twice. They were so hungry for items which our club produced that we could not keep

up with local demand. This difference between the two projects reflects their geographic location. Pangia's road link to other major centres makes it very easy to buy manufactured products and to move back and forth between village and town. Because of this people's tastes are more town oriented. In Oksapmin, on the other hand, there is no access to the outside except by air and villagers who are in training or earning money elsewhere. The Oksapmin's values are changing quickly though, as more people are leaving the sub-district, and are bringing back sewing machines, new ideas and tastes.

CONCLUSION

It is hoped that the above insights and suggestions may be helpful to those people interested in visiting, checking upon, aiding or starting rural women's projects. A women's project which succeeds can benefit the whole community by setting a good example and perhaps in raising the standards of family living and health. Women have for centuries been and still are the primary nurturers of the family and producers, and so it is time their aspirations and projects be seen as the key to true grass-roots development and community advancement.

Another article which looks at programs for women, this time in an industrial setting, was written by Yoon Bok-Nam from Korea. It was presented at the DVV's Summercourse in 1983 and highlights some of the problems faced by young women who come from rural areas to work in the newly-industrialised sectors of Korea, and how adult education programs can meet their needs. Included below are extracts from Miss Yoon's paper.

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR WORKING WOMEN IN KUMI INDUSTRIAL AREA*

Yoon Bok-Nam

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The recent progress in Korea is characterized by industralization which requires accumulation of capital development of technological skills and utilization of labor force.

Especially, in the field of textile and electronic industries, women constitute the main labor force for a comparatively cheap wages. The model area of this project is Kumi Industrial Estate located in this University's external service region, which is now a good example of a rapidly growing area of textile and electronic industries in Korea.

Kumi was a small town of 24,000 population in 1972 which served as local center for commerce and transport for the surrounding rural areas because of it's location along the railroad. However, 1973 this town has expanded its population and residential and commercial areas after the government started to develop a new Industrial Complex of textile and electronic products. The town of Kumi finally became an Industrial Complex type of city absorbing the surrounding industrial areas and villages.

Of course, this increase of population is mainly due to the influx of migrant workers and to the inflow of population from other occupations and service institutions because of the rapid growth of industrial facilities in this area.

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* This program has been conducted by the Institute for Community Education, Keimyung University under the directorship of Professor Jong-Gon Hwang.
Miss Yoon Bok-Nam was Program Coordinator of the Institute for Community Education, Keimyung University, Korea.

However, an amazing fact is that woman workers constitute more than 70 percent of all workers in this area and the number of working women continues to increase as the time goes on.

According to the statistics of 1976, there were 18,000 women workers (70%) out of 25,000 total employees. However, this number has increased to 35,000 women workers (71.4%) out of 49,000 total employees in 1978. Most of these women are unmarried and from rural areas and came here to earn money for supporting their family or for preparing for their future marriage and family.

But the room and board facilities of their plants cannot accommodate all of them, and programs for their leisure time are very poor. Thus many working women of marriageable age, especially those who are living scattered around the unorganized communities outside the factory dormitories, have been facing many kinds of personal problems which require a certain kind of counselling and educational program.

OBJECTIVES OF THE PROJECT

Therefore, the opening of this kind of program for adult education and counselling are vitally significant for the working women because it will enable them to adapt more efficiently to their social and occupational environment, to improve their citizenship attributes, and to plan and prepare for a better future family life.

The objectives of this project are:

* to identify status and problems of working women in Kumi area,
* to develop models for education and counselling programs for the working women with special emphasis on human relations, citizenship, marriage, and future family planning.
* to develop materials and techniques for education and counselling for the working women,
* to develop leadership in education and counselling for local industrial and adult education leaders.

NATURE OF THE PROJECT

This project was originally designed for working women in the area. However, the results of the interviews for preliminary survey strongly indicate the necessity of adult education program for male employee's wives who are also potential women workers. Considering this fact, the researcher decided to open a class for housewives as potential workers on either part-time or full-time basis.

This project is a sort of participatory research program of adult education and counselling which is divided into four parts:

* preliminary survey,
* curriculum construction and preparation of materials,
* program implementations, and
* evaluation.

PRELIMINARY SURVEY

The methods of field observation, interview, documentary analysis, and questionnaire survey have been employed for the preliminary survey in order to understand the general conditions and problems confronting the working women.

1. Questionnaire

Of a questionnaire survey administered to 900 working women and 300 wives of factory employees, 788 (87.6%) of the former and 272 (90.7%) of the latter responded.

Questionnaires for the working women are designed to gather the following information and problems:

Family backgrounds of the working women
Problems related to their human relations
Problems related to their occupational and social life
Leisure time activities
Interests in or aspirations for further education
Expectation and plans for future occupation
Plans for future marriage and family life.

However, the focus of the questionnaires for the housewives was placed on the following problem area:

Sense of belonging to the community
Social contacts with neighbours
Housewives' role in the family
Status and activities of leisure time
Interests in or aspirations for continuing education.

Most items of the questionnaire were analyzed for percentile distribution except for several correlation analyses which seemed to be statistically significant.

2. Interviews

In order to identify the necessity and problems of organizing adult education programs, twenty community leaders, ten church leaders, and twenty municipal and industrial leaders were interviewed. These interviews have neither been systematically carried out, nor statistically analyzed. They were valuable, however, for a proper understanding of the salient features and problems of the community and also for gathering useful information for organizing programs for working women and housewives in the newly forming community.

3. Collection of Materials and Data

The research staff tried to collect as many documents as were available, such as archives and historical documents, city planning documents of housing and residence, and other statistics and maps, etc.

These materials have been analyzed in order to understand the general picture and problems of industrial and urban development in that area.

FINDINGS OF THE SURVEY

Kumi is one of the rapidly growing industrial areas in which the population has jumped from 24,000 in 1972 to 89,000 in 1978. The industries in this area had also expanded from 78 factories with 7,000 workers in 1972 to 210 factories with 39,000 workers in 1978.

One of the notable phenomena, along with industrialization in that area, is that of the total number of employees in 1978 the proportion of female workers (62%:24,000) is higher than that of the male (38%:15,000). Most of the women workers (90%) migrated from other rural areas and local towns other than Kumi and about 27 percent of the women workers are under eighteen.

Surprisingly enough, 68.5 percent of the women workers are middle school (junior high school) graduates, while 24 percent are graduates of senior high school or above.

Only one-third of the women employees have accommodation for living in the factory dormitories, while the rest are scattered around in not well-organized communities of the Kumi town, except for ten percent who are living with their families.

The salaries range from 30,000 won (US$60) to 120,000 won (US$240) working eight hours a day for six days a week. According to the results of a survey, three-fourths of the women workers are reported to have saving accounts or other kinds of investments ranging from $40 and more (65.8%) to $10 (16.5%) a month.

Concerning the problems faced in every day life, 31 percent of the respondents indicated their problems related to human relations in the family and factory, while for 25 percent finding a spouse and preparation of marriage was their concern. Of the others, each 10 percent, was concerned with going to an upper-grade school and in solving the economic difficulties of their families.

However, they were much interested in their future marriage and family life, the reason for which many young women have come to work at the factories, i.e., to save money. Three-fourths of the respondents accept the notion that a woman can choose her own spouse by her own will, except for 15 percent who expect their parents to choose their spouse for marriage. Though the women workers have rather progressive views on the type of marriage, they are tolerant about the traditional role of women in the family.

Concerning the family size and structure, about 42 percent of the respondents prefer to have three or more children and

about 10 percent are positive about living with their husband's parents after marriage, which is a traditional way of family life in Korea. Concerning a job after marriage, more than half of the respondents want to quit work at the time of marriage, 15 percent want to maintain their job until having the first baby, and only 17 percent wish to continue work or 11 percent to return to the job when their children are grown up.

The majority (85%) of the women strongly expressed their positive opinion on women's participation in political and social life.

In conclusion, there has been an increasing number of women workers coming into textile and electronic factories like those in Kumi. The women workers who come monthly from rural areas of other local towns are having difficulties with personal problems of residence, human relations, and poverty, etc.

While some of them have aspirations for going to upper-grade schools, most of them are interested in future marriage and family life.

There is an urgent need for further education and counselling programs to help them utilize their leisure time, solve their problems which confront them in every day life, and prepare them for their future marriage and family life.

Therefore, the programs should be concentrated on the subjects related to human relations, marriage and family, as well as citizenship and liberal studies.

This pilot project should encourage and help local agencies and resources to initiate their own long range and continuing programs for women workers in that area.

Besides lectures and discussions, practical work and group activities were encouraged in small groups. There were "sing-along" hours during the regular programs and a one-day visitation to Daegu which included visits to Keimyung University and sightseeing around Daegu City.

An organized counselling program had not yet been launched at the beginning of the first session. However, informal counselling service given by the research staff and lecturers on a voluntary and casual basis had been offered to the participants.

According to the survey results, most of the respondents expected lectures given by well-known university professors rather than discussions and group activities led by local leaders and resource persons. Therefore, nineteen lecturers and discussion leaders were invited exclusively from Daegu, especially from Keimyung University, Kyung-Pook National University and Dong-San Hospital in Daegu. Since Kumi is located fifty miles away from Daegu, it was not easy to bring lecturers there because of the high expense of transportation and the loss of time.

The first session of the program was finished on the 14th of July with a closing ceremony when 148 participants (90 percent of original applicants) received certificates from the President of Keimyung University.

EVALUATION

At the end of first session which lasted until July 14, there was a simple questionnaire distributed to the participants asking them for their evaluation of the program.

During the latter part of July, the staff members had an evaluation workshop for the revision and further implementation of the program.

* Demand for continuing education for women in this area is very strong. For example at Catholic Centre for Working Women, the capacity for a class is about 50. However, there were so many applicants that 60 applicants were accepted within three days.

* The facilities of both centers are not ideally suitable for the programs. The Catholic Center has facilities in an upstairs room situated on a noisy downtown street. The Keumsung Electronic Factory has a big auditorium, but it is not suitable for small group discussions and group activities.

* The participants felt that the length of the program was too short. They want a longer period of time for the program and additional service.

* The means of transportation is the most important matter in carrying out this kind of program. It is very difficult for Institute for Community Education (ICE) to ask university lecturers who are very busy to take an ordinary bus to go to Kumi.

* Lecture fees should be increased from $10(US) to $15 per hour because they spend two or three hours enroute.

STARTING THE SECOND SESSION

The second session started on August 30 at the Kumi Catholic Center for Working Women. This session opened with two classes; one for working women and the other for wives of male employees in that area.

Originally housewives were not included in the plan for this project; however, the results of the interviews indicated that there was a great demand for adult education by housewives of male employees who are in fact potential employees in that area. Because they have migrated from other areas and because they have increasing leisure time at home, wives of male employees desperately need some kind of social activities which will help them adjust to their new environment and give them an opportunity for self-realization, and which will give them new knowledge and skills in child rearing, home-making, etc.

For the employees of Keumsung Factory, a counselling program has been started at the women's dormitory. Two of the ICE staff are scheduled to visit the Keumsung Factory dormitory and give a one-hour lecture followed by recreation; then there is a one-and-one-half hour individual and group counselling to which specialists from Daegu are occasionally invited.

The contents of the course subjects are similar to the previous ones except some additional programs in cooking and dress-making and one occasional lecture on special topics for which local leaders such as the city mayor and policechief are invited.

The Second Session of the project started with a weekend program for the former and present participants on a voluntary basis. The program is conducted in the girls' dormitory of Keumsung Factory which is more comfortable and convenient than the regular classroom in the administration building of the factory where the program of the first session was conducted.

The program includes a one-hour lecture, discussion, and recreation followed by individual and group counselling.

Dr. Mutava, in this paper, looks at needs identification from an academic point of view for a wide range of adult education programmes. He points to the difficulties in finding out what individuals and communities need and/or want to learn and combing these with institutional and other external requirements.

NEEDS IDENTIFICATION:

THE GATEWAY TO SUCCESS IN ADULT EDUCATION

Dominic M. Mutava*

INTRODUCTION

The fast growing body of literature of adult education contains many references to the meeting of the needs of the participants. Lindeman[1] for example, argues that in adult education the curriculum must always be built around the students needs and interests. Never-the-less, though over the years adult educators have always stressed the meeting of needs of participants as a cardinal principle of adult education and sporadically efforts have been made to bring information or knowledge or skills or processes to bear upon the needs of participants, the discrepancy between theory and practice is still, relatively, wide. Needless to point out that the achievements of adult education in meeting participants needs should not be confused with its theoretical framework. While the theory of adult education to meet students needs is sound its implementation has left much to be desired.

On the other hand to build a programme of adult education on the real needs of participants requires some information which indicates what those needs are. But despite the increase in the number of books and articles about needs identification, one of the main reasons for the existing gap between intention and achievement is evidently attributable to the failure of most adult educators to identify accurately the needs of participants. This failure stems, to large extent, from lack of knowledge and skills, on the part of adult educators relating to the actual techniques of determining participants needs. Similar argument was also advanced by Kempher[2] who after conducting a survey of more than five hundred adult education agencies came to the conclusion that, "how to identify the needs and interests of adult learners is a perennial problem faced by most adult educators."

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This paper, therefore, discusses briefly the problem of identifying individuals and community need and analyses some scientific tools and instruments which could be effectively utilized to identify such needs accurately.

The need for needs identification

To learn to identify the needs of adults accurately is to bring relevance a step closer to reality in adult education. As a matter of fact, although relevance has always been anticipated as the common thread of adult education in its various forms, at present it is the magic word of the moment. And what can be more relevant than the development of an educational programme for the specific purpose of meeting adults needs! Thus identification of needs of participants is the key to relevance.

Historically, the focus of adult education was on the individual and his needs. Consequently the study of how to identify and determine needs was essentially related to individuals. However, in a time of social crisis and community tension the solution of problems by the piece-meal method of individual achievement no longer suffices. And again as Miller,[3] rightly points out, personal needs do not operate in a vacuum; they are shaped, conditioned and channelled by the social structures and forces of human society in which each individual is born. In any event the path should not be one of abandoning the individual or of substituting community needs for individual needs because the needs of the individual will remain and must be met. Rather what all adult educators need to do is to consider seriously and equally the needs of each community where the programme is taking place and those of the individuals who are going to participate in such programmes. This ought and should be the very first step in the planning of any educational programme for adults.

Unfortunately one finds that the general literature of adult education does not say as much about ways of determining community needs as it says about the determination of training needs of individuals. In such a situation, therefore, adult educators are compelled to seek help from the literature of related disciplines and any other field concerned with the community and with human growth and development.

On the other hand the static nature of many adult education programmes, particularly their failure to probe to determine

educational needs which eventually could benefit the entire community and not only a group of individuals, is another misconception which adult educators should strive to abolish. Paradoxially instead of changing this static nature of adult education programmes the tendency seems to be to continue offering what others have found to be successful. This is, of course, rather unfortunate because different communities have different educational needs.

Although lack of skilled manpower to seek out needs within the community is a significant fact which should not be underrated, what adult educators should realize is that they can actually increase inrolment and chances of success by learning more about the real needs of the community, and by basing adult educational programmes on such needs. To this effect, therefore, identification of educational needs, of both the community as a whole and of the individual in particular, should always be its first priority and should lead ultimately to the identification of educational needs which exist within the total problem area.

The question of who actually determines the needs is a crucial one, especially, if one takes into consideration the fact that in most countries much of the tension in the relationship between educational establishment and the community is due to disagreements over who determines the needs. Where the unfortunate situation does exist that the educator determines the needs of participants and plans educational programmes without involving or consulting them, the rate of non-respondents is seemingly high. Then the voluntary nature of participation in adult education leaves the ultimate decision with the adult to determine whether he/she enrols or stays away which means in the final analysis it is always the adult who makes the judgement about his own need and what will satisfy that need, hence the need for needs identification.

Sources of needs

According to Malcolm Knowles,[4] there are three main sources of needs and interests that should be given due consideration when planning any educational programme for adults. These include; the needs of the individual to be served by the programme; those of the sponsoring organization or institution; and those of the community or society as a whole.

Needs of Individuals

Clues as to what the needs and interests of individuals are can be obtained from several sources: individuals themselves, people in helping professions and positions, mass media or even from professional literature.

Individuals

Assuming that most individuals are clearly aware of some of their needs, information concerning such needs can be obtained from them through personal interviews, group discussions or even through questionnaires.

Projective and sentence completion questionnaires are very simple, but effective, means of getting more reliable clues concerning individual needs.

In projective questionnaires individuals are requested to project themselves into some situation and tell how they feel or would behave. For example rural women might be asked: If you were to attend a Homecraft course which topics do you wish should be given priority? Or if you were in charge of organizing educational programmes for housewives, which topics would you definitely include in your programme? It is very important that questionnaires of this type be anonymous and that individual responses be treated confidentially.

The sentence completion questionnaire, on the other hand, gets more-or-less the same quality of information by asking individuals to complete sentences with such beginnings as the following:-

- As peasant farmer I wish I knew how to .....

- As a housewife I wish I would be able to .....

etc, etc.

The content of the completed sentences can be coded according to categories of needs in the same way as the projective questionnaires.

From people in helping professions

Vital information regarding the needs of individuals can often be obtained from people in the community, to whom individuals bring their problems, through interviews, discussions or direct questionnaires. These include social workers, ministers and priests, ward chairmen, community development workers, public health nurses, politicians, trade union officers, lawyers, teachers, etc, etc. By virtue of their profession such people have access to information about individual needs which very few others have.

From mass media

Editors of newspapers and leading journals and magazines as well as producers of TV and radio programmes are professionally trained to be sensitive to pressure points in the personal lives of the population they serve. Adult educators, therefore, can pick up clues regarding trends in the changing patterns of individual needs by analyzing the themes being given prominence in the mass media.

From professional literature

Professional journals and other literature in the field of adult education and other related disciplines like psychology, sociology, anthropology, political sciences, social work, etc, etc, usually carry articles that yield insights into deeper educational needs of adults.

Needs of organizations

Most adult education programmes do take place under the auspices of institutions. As living organisms these institutions have needs too which need to be identified and given due consideration when planning educational programmes for adults. As a matter of fact the needs of such organizations, which normally employ not only most adult educators but also some of the participants, seem to have great implications on the needs of individuals and those of the community as a whole.

In terms of Maslow's needs hierarchy an organization has need for survival, for safety, for belonging, for esteem and for self-actualization. An institution/organization is entirely dependent upon its personnel to satisfy these needs and have a vested interest in their possessing the competencies to do so.

Information concerning the needs of an organization/ institution can be obtained from staff officials, employees or other institutions which work together. Specific methods of getting such information include: interviews, questionnaires, tests, group problem analysis, records and reports and job analysis.

Needs of the community

Apart from individual and organizational needs there are also the community needs and community pressures. Identification of community needs requires, among other things, a detailed study of the community including its background economic life, its social structure, institutional structure etc, etc. Specifically and according to Blackwell[5] clues concerning community needs can be obtained from analyzing the following inter-related dimensions of the community:-

The population base

It is self-evident that if one is to understand the community effectively one needs to know something about the human raw material that makes it up. Who are the people! Their demographic composition, educational level, occupation pattern, etc, etc.

The institutional structure of the community

This is the complex web of organized social relationships which people have created in order to help themselves better meet their needs. Common institutions from which one can acquire clues pertaining to the needs of the community include the family, various agencies, business houses and industry, civic organizations and any other special interest groups.

The value systems

The value system of the people encompasses the things which they value or hold dear, all those things which are high on their priority rating in the community. These include such qualities like: neighbourliness, hospitality, attitudes toward education, change, etc, etc.

Informal social relationship

The pattern of the network of inter-personal relationships is extremely important in revealing needs of a community. This is different from the organized institutional structure. Informal leaders who help to mould opinion in communities operate within this framework. This does not, however, imply that one should not consult all those individuals behind the scenes who actually pull the strings that makes things happen or who can block things from happening in communities (the power structure of the community).

The most popular or most commonly used method of determining community needs appears to be the survey or poll. Other means which are equally effective include community study, use of advisory committees, consultation with leaders or with the power structure or interviews within the target audience. Presumably the problem-solving group is also an effective method because it directly relates the determination of the need to the ultimate solution of the problem. By means of checklists or placing suggestion or question boxes in strategic areas where adults meet as well as carrying out informal conversations with potential participants one can gather important information concerning the needs of a community.

Hand,[6] identifies four simple but practical approaches to the study of community needs; the social welfare approach which encompasses the analysis of agencies, institutions and services; the study of the community as a social unit; the ecological approach which includes the spatial and temporal relations of people; and the use of the study itself as an educational process leading to social actions.

Conclusion

Various techniques of identifying or/and determining educational needs of individuals, institutions/organizations and communities have been mentioned and described. Apparently there is no right or wrong needs identification but it is the inappropriate selection of needs which is at the root of the failure of many adult education programmes. In other words the use of appropriate needs identification tools, techniques and strategies to identify the appropriate needs can greatly improve the success of adult education programmes. Unfortunately still a great number of adult educators act on assumptions about what people would be interested in rather than finding out from them their real needs and interests.

The very act of asking individuals to state their interests and needs involves them directly in the programme planning process, gives them a sense of influencing decisions that affect them and makes them feel a part of mutual understanding. From this point of view it is often argued that good programme promotion starts with involving potential participants in articulating their needs and interests. In other words in adult education the starting point is always the adult's interests and needs. In fact the whole concept of needs identification is entirely conceived on the conviction that in planning any programme one should first of all identify perceived needs of participants, analyse these needs, decide on their priority and then design programmes to meet the needs.

Many adult educators and many adult education agencies use the techniques described earlier to identify the needs of individuals, organizations and communities. However, heed should be taken when interpreting surveys, interviews, questionnaires, tests observations, discussion, etc. One must always bear in mind that an opinion expressed on a questionnaire interview, etc, is only an opinion expressed at one point in time. It is not necessarily a commitment on the part of the respondent to act in certain way or to support a certain issue when and if it comes to his attention again. Consequently, in interpreting the significance of answers on a questionnaire or community survey it is usually wise to discount the extent of favourability expressed on certain kinds of issues.

Notes and References

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This article is by a member of the staff of the Direktorat Pendidikan Masyarakat (Department of Community Education), formerly known as PENMAS but now called DIKMAS. ASPBAE has been involved in the Learning Fund Programme since its inception in 1979 and has provided funds for pilot studies which, if successful, could be implemented in its larger World Bank funded project. This has been undertaken under the Bureau's "Two Country Program", which also involves Thailand, and is funded by a grant from the Deutscher Volkshoschul Verband (DVV). The Learning Fund Programme is being continuously evaluated and several publications have been produced, mainly case studies of individual learning funds. These are valuable aids for people wishing to set up learning funds and for those responsible for overseeing them.

STUDY ANALYSIS OF THE LEARNING FUND

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INTRODUCTION

When PENMAS (now called DIKMAS) introduced the Income Generating Learning Group (IGLG) as a Learning Fund Programme in 1979, the amount provided for each group was Rp. 100,000.* It soon became apparent that it was far from adequate, hence an increase to Rp. 150,000 per group.

Since then there has been a steady increase of demand for learning funds. In terms of learning groups and the number of participants, the programme has so far been successful. The increased demands were due to the fact that people felt to have accrued direct and tangible benefits from it by way of increased income and improved standard of living.

Before committing itself to a full scale learning fund programme, PENMAS set up a number of pilot groups at different amounts of learning funds, i.e. Rp. 1,000,000 and Rp. 2,000,000. The purpose of the pilot projects was to build "a model for development of bigger funded learning groups".

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* At current exchange rates Rp. 1,000 = $US 1.

In this context, PENMAS conducted case studies of 130 'small funded' and 5 'larger funded' learning groups. The studies have revealed strengths and weaknesses of these groups, and their respective prospect for further development to be used for future planning.

The Goals of the Learning Fund Programme

* To help realize articles 33 point 1, 31, 27 point 2 of the 1945 Constitution;
* To provide learning opportunity to those who never went to school, drop outs, unemployed, and others wishing to learn how to earn a living;
* To help community members pursue knowledge, attitude, and skills pertinent to income generating or earning activity;
* To help community members increase their income level to enable them pay for their own learning activities.

The Purpose of the Study

The case studies try to probe the process of implementation and identify the problems. For that purpose, the studies will:

* Assess the extent to which the implementation of the Learning Fun Programme has been effected, and the impact on the learners and the community.

More specifically, the objectives are:

* To measure the increase of knowledge, attitude and skills of learners;
* To identify methods of utilizing the funds;
* To assess the impact of the programme on participants of the Learning Fund Programme;
* To suggest further development of the Learning Fund Programme.

The Scope of the Study

It was expected that the case studies would be undertaken in the seven project provinces where the Learning Fund Programme is being operationalized. Until 1982, the programmes were

being implemented in 7 provinces, 148 kabupatens, 1880 kecamatans, and 29,634 villages with a total of 3054 IGLGs. Time, personnel and financial constraints prevented PENMAS from undertaking full scale studies of all learning groups. The studies, therefore, were limited to a sample of IGLGs which will provide a general picture of the programme.

Sampling

Considering the resources at hand, a sample of 24 IGLGs was taken from each of the seven provinces, 18 were to be the ones considered 'successful', and 6 which were categorized as 'less successful'.

The criteria for sampling were as follows:

Sample must represent the IGLGs in the region;

Sample must have been active for a period between 5 to 36 months, preferably learning groups which have been in existence for 12 months during 1979/1983;

The 'successful' groups for sample must meet the following conditions:

- Have on-going activity
- Have exhibited some gains in learning and production
- Recipient of Penmas learning fund.

The 'less successful' groups must meet the following conditions:

- Have been inactive
- Have used up the fund
- Recipient of Penmas learning fund.

Selection of Sample

A random sampling technique was used to determine the groups for study. Any IGLG meeting the above criteria had the same chance to be picked up as a sample.

The number of IGLGs during 1979/1981 was 1,752. A sample of 10% yield an average of 18 IGLGs in the category of "successful groups" and 6 IGLGs in the category of "less successful groups" from each province.

No sampling was done for IGLGs with larger funding (Rp 1 million and Rp 2 million) since they were pilot groups and numbered only five. For a distribution of IGLGs, see Table 1 below:

Table 1

Distribution of IGLGs

Province	Number of IGLGs	
	1979/1980	1980/1981
North Sumatera	68	136
DKI Jakarta	20	40
West Java	96	192
Central Java (incl. Yogyakarta)	160	320
East Java	148	296
South Sulawesi	92	184
	584	1168

Sources of Data

Sources of data to be generated through questionnaire and interview schedule include:

- participants of the programme (IGLG members)
- community leaders.

For a breakdown of sample study by province and kabupaten, see Table 2.

Instruments for Study

Instruments for collecting quantitative and qualitative information were designed in a simple format to facilitate usage and data analyses.

Table 2

Distribution of Sample IGLGs By Province

Province	Kab	Kec.	IGLGs				Respondents			
			'Successful'		Less success '		Learners		Leaders	
			Sample	Actual	Sample	Actual	Target	Actual	Target	Actual
North Sum.	7	18	18	18	6	2	90	90	24	24
DKI Jakarta	5	23	18	23	6	4	90	115	24	24
West Java	-	-	18	-	6	9	90	-	24	9
Centr. Java	11	18	18	18	6	7	90	90	24	24
East Java	7	16	16	16	6	9	90	80	24	24
So.Sulawesi	9	23	23	25	6	7	90	125	24	24
Yogyakarta	-	-	18	-	6	-	90	-	24	-
7	39	298	129	100	42	38	630	500	132	129

NOTES: Sample of 'successful IGLGs from West Java at the time of data analysis were not yet available. Data from Yogyakarta were not available.

Data Collection

Data collection was conducted as a training exercise in the respective provinces and was assigned to the Balai Penmas staff. The national staff of PENMAS helped in designing the case study, developing the instruments and data analyses. Sampling and data collection were carried out by the Balai Permas staff with assistance from local IKIP 'dosens'.

Major Problems

Participants of the Learning Fund Programme began to feel and see the benefits of the programme in terms of improved knowledge, attitude and skills pertinent to the learner's own source of income to the extent that there was a marked increase in his/her earning capacity. The result has been that the demand for learning funds is greatly increased. In addition, there is also an increased demand for larger funds than Rp. 150,000 currently awarded to each learning group, to meet the need of specific type of earning activity. To date the range is from Rp. 150,000 to Rp. 2 million.

Marketing has been one of the weakest points, because of lack of skill on the part of learners and fierce competition from established business enterprises. The problem was clearly revealed in this study that 30 out of 130 IGLGs failed because of poor marketing.

There has been a critical shortage of learning resources, especially those who are serving as tutors in the learning groups.

Major Achievements

Generally, in each learning group a process of learning has taken place, geared to solving problems pertinent to specific income generating activity of the group. From a range of subjects of concern, participants learn the following:

* Knowledge, attitude and skills required to develop specific income generating activity or business enterprise;
* Market survey;
* Simple bookkeeping;
* Business management;
* Resource utilization, etc.

The participants show some increase in their income level however small, but critical to behavioural changes leading to improved household management and socio-economic life.

Mutual help or the spirit of 'gotongroyong' has been strengthened in the learning groups. Members of the learning groups are willing to set aside some of their profit to make up a learning fund to help a new group to start.

Each learning group began to realize the importance of capital formation to develop its enterprise. Each learning group has set aside some of the profit for saving.

Each learning group began to realize the importance of learning in each aspect of production and marketing its products.

A closer intersectoral collaboration has been strengthened, especially between welfare departments, such as: Small Industry, Agriculture, Cooperatives, etc., collaborating in assisting IGLGs.

Weaknesses

The Learning Fund Programme has been in existence only for a few years now, and the participants are from lower educated segments of the population, most of them are illiterates. Therefore, it is only logical that learning takes place in much slower pace, and to date has not been apparent.

Preliminary surveys to determine the type of business enterprise most appropriate in specific locality has not been properly done, resulting in failures of some of the learning groups.

A learning fund of Rp. 150,000 has been found inadequate for many of the learning groups to enable them to attain the level of success the groups are aiming at.

In some cases, where the groups have to provide some amount of a matching fund, which can only be acquired through a single contribution from individual members, the relationship of IGLG participants deteriorated into one of a manager and his/her workers.

Findings of the Study

'Small funded' IGLG (Rp. 150,000)

During fiscal year 1970/1980 a total of 1500 proposals were submitted to PENMAS, of which only 584 were awarded. In

1980/1981, of the proposed 4,000 learning funds, 1,168 were awarded. And for fiscal year 1981/1982, there were 8,225 proposals of which 1,752 were awarded. A substantial increase in demand for learning funds, particularly during the last fiscal year was a result of more and more people enjoying direct and tangible benefits from participating in the Learning Fund Programme. People began to feel and see for themselves that learning does not always have to be in school, but by active involvement in some earning activities, one can also 'learn the facts of life'.

Table 3 below shows the distribution of proposals and awards by province in fiscal years 1979/1980, 1980/1981, and 1981/1982.

Table 3

Distribution of Proposals and Awards

Province	1979/1980		1980/1981		1981/1982	
	Proposed	Awarded	Proposed	Awarded	Proposed	Awarded
North Sumatera	250	68	675	136	1100	136
DKI Jakarta	100	20	405	40	750	60
West Java	175	96	600	192	1325	192
Central Java (incl. Yogyakarta)	275	160	900	320	1500	320
East Java	500	148	850	296	2170	296
South Sulawesi	200	92	470	184	900	276
Intersectoral	-	-	-	-	480	472
TOTAL	1500	584	4000	1168	8225	1752

Remarks: In the FY 1979/1980 and 1980/1981, all proposals were reviewed at kabupaten, province and national levels.
Beginning FY 1981/1982, review of proposals were done at the kabupaten and provincial levels.

Criteria for selection of Learning Fund proposals are as follows:

The participants have already acquired specific productive skill.

The participants have already started their business.

The group has a clearly identified learning component.

The group has a clear estimated increase of income.

The group has a clear plan to set aside some of the profit.

The group has a tentative plan to assist a new group.

The group has acquired a matching fund.

The relationship in the group must not be governed by a manager and workers relationship.

From interviews with 500 participants of the Learning Fund Programme, 60% stated the importance of a preliminary study to determine specific business enterprise before committing the group to a particular economic venture, and the importance of record keeping and market survey. From 130 learning groups which had been monitored, 100 were still active and continued their learning activities that have shown some signs of progress in such areas as: higher income level, added capital, and higher propensity for saving. From these 130 IGLGs having been active for 3 to 36 months, a 10.45% increase in average income of members had been registered during the same period. There was also an average of 32% increase in capital. Each learning group had been able to set aside an average of 1.5% of the profit per month, earmarked to help formation of a new group. This saving amounted to about Rp. 2,000 to Rp. 5,000 a month. At the time of study, the 100 still active groups were found to have succeeded in saving Rp. 4,021,000. If we take an average of Rp. 150,000 for a minimum learning fund, this will result in at least 40 new learning groups being added to the existing ones. In reality, the amount contributed to new groups ranges between Rp. 15,000 and Rp. 150,000, so that from that saving, 575 new IGLGs had been generated and activated.

Not less than 500 learners were involved in the 100 IGLGs. During monitoring some observations had been recorded as follows:

- participants began to acquire skills required to run their business enterprise.
- participants began to do simple bookkeeping.
- participants know how to:

  calculate cost price;

  improve production processes;

  market their products;

  locate sources for raw materials;

  keep records;
- participants were able to prepare financial reports, etc.
- illiterate members began to learn how to read and write.

It can be inferred from these findings that a major factor contributing to a 'successful group' was high motivation of participants to commit themselves to the tasks of promoting, and 'learning the ropes' in running a business enterprise, while the 'less successful groups' did not exhibit these traits.

'Larger funded' IGLG (Rp. 1 million to Rp. 2 million)

In response to the needs for larger funds and also for programme development, PENMAS had set up a pilot project of several IGLGs receiving up to Rp. 1 million and Rp. 2 million. One group has been in existence for over 18 months, one for 3 months, and another one for 5 months. One of the groups had been a total failure.

A summary description of each of the learning groups is as follows:

IGLG on fish pond.

A learning fund of Rp. 2 million was awarded directly to the learners under the guidance of the Penilik. This group experienced a complete failure even before they started production, because of a flood that washed away the entire stock of fish. One very important lesson had been learned

from this group, and that is the need to carefully assess such external factors as weather and water current to economic ventures like fisheries.

IGLG on Papaya with a learning fund of Rp. 1,600,000.

The group has been in existence for more than 14 months, had already a saving of Rp. 600,000, had succeeded in increasing the average income of its members by 50%. At the beginning there were 44 participants of whom 25 are still active. This group has expanded its activities as follows:

Assisted 2 learning groups (chicken raising) with funds of Rp. 150,000 each. Both programmes have a stock of 500 and 600 broilers respectively.

Assisted one learning group of 2 learners engaged in fish hatchery with Rp. 150,000 learning fund.

Bought seven sheep for raising by seven people (one each) on a fifty-fifth share of the offspring.

As an indirect effect of the IGLG, similar ventures sprang up in the locality, involving more learners. The group adds more income by growing quick yeilding crops between rows of papaya that can be harvested within one hundred days. That gives the group not only another cash crop but also a new technology in crop diversification. With additional income, the group were able to undertake study visits to learn more about farming and animal husbandry.

Another side effect has been that members of the group applied the new technique of farming in their own home garden. More than half now are also engaged in growing papaya and selling papaya seedling.

Some of them also started rabbit raising. The group has also acquired sheep to help them with compost and loan them to the villagers for a fifty-fifty share of the offspring.

IGLG on soft drink retail

This particular group was organized by a local foundation called "Pakasi" whose members are students from Institut Pertanian Bogor (State Agriculture Institute). With a start up capital of Rp. 700,000 from PENMAS, the group learns to do business in retail sale of 'teh botol' (bottled ice tea).

The group has been in existence for 18 months, initially comprising 10 illiterate and drop-out youngsters. It has since grown up to 78 members while the original capital has increased to Rp. 1,020,000, showing an average monthly profit of 2.2% or a total of Rp. 320,000. With added capital it was able to add new members to the group. In the course of 18 months the group began to diversify their business to include: shoe shine boys, fruits and cigarette stalls. During that time, they succeeded in increasing individual earning by 50% and the capital by as much as 20%. One of the learning components includes: Paket A, simple recording of costs and sales, market survey, etc.

IGLG on leathercraft in Kuningan (West Java).

This group started with 20 participants with a learning fund of Rp. 2 million from PENMAS. To date no information regarding the progress of this group has been available.

The last pilot group is the IGLG on batik in Sragen (Central Java) with a learning fund of Rp. 1.5 million from PENMAS.

The group has been in existence for 3 months and has 20 participants. From the monitoring it was revealed that 3 months after receiving the fund, this group was able to assist one new small IGLG with a fund of Rp. 150,000, indicating an average monthly saving of Rp. 60,000 or 4% of the original capital. It had also increased membership by 40% and accumulative capital by 15% per month.

If we compare the results of the small funded groups (Rp. 150,000) with the medium groups (between 151,000 - 1.0 million) and the large groups (1.0 million - 2.0 million), we can see from Table 4 the corresponding impacts on each category of IGLG.

Table 4

Impact of Different Size of IGLG

Type of Fund	Average lifetime	No. of groups	Amount of LF (000)	IMPACT				
				Average earning increas (000)	Learning Group Accumul. Cap. (000)	Monthly savings (000)	Capabil. to asst. new LG	Average number of learners
Small	17	100	25-150	7.030	4314334	2-5	5 yrs	5
Medium	18	1	151-1000	6	320	30	6 mos.	10
Large	6	3	1001-2000	8	425	60	3 mos.	20

The table clearly indicates that small funded IGLGs yield less impact compared to medium funded groups, and in turn medium groups give smaller impact compared to large IGLGs. This is clearly indicated by the saving capacity and formation of new group learning groups. The different level of earning increase and accumulated capital cannot be used as a yardstick because of the small sample and the difference in lifetime.

From the Table, it seems that the larger the learning group fund, the bigger the impact will be. However, this should not be taken to mean that we cease funding small IGLGs, on the contrary, we must maintain the flexibility of providing small funds because a lot of small business enterprises need a relatively small amount of capital. At the same time, medium and larger funded IGLGs must also be strengthened and developed for the same reasons that some business enterprises need larger capital input to yeild corresponding larger impact.

Failures

As indicated earlier, of 130 IGLGs 30 groups were categorized as failures. The groups disintegrated and lost all the capital. The main cause for failure has been lack of careful analysis of the types of business most appropriate for the group and the skills required to generate it. Common factors contributing to failures have been identified as follows:

Failure to identify sources of raw materials;

Marketing has not been adequately surveyed; too much assumption that marketing will take care of itself once production started;

Learners do not know how to keep purchase and sale records;

The group fails to keep a simple bookkeeping; individual and group assets mix together;

Lack of learning resources from which participants can derive new experience and increase their skills.

In short, major problems pertain to (a) marketing, and (b) business management. Marketing is a crucial problem begging for immediate solution to prevent more learning groups from disintegration and bankruptcy. Sale outlets for IGLG products and/or services must be created and included in the planning process, much as the established market structure for factory products with various levels of distribution network.

PENMAS is trying to help create the market structure by establishing medium and large funded IGLGs (Rp. 1 million to Rp. 2 million) at the kabupaten to function as "collector" and distributor of products of small IGLGs within its kabupaten. At the provincial level, larger funded IGLGs can also be set up to help the kabupaten's IGLGs market their products and services. In this way, the problem of marketing may well be on its way to solution.

Conclusion

To date the Learning Fund Programme in the form of IGLG has yielded positive results in the sense that learners have accrued direct and tangible benefits from it, in terms of increased income and improved quality of life.

That the learning funds provided by PENMAS have at present not been able to cope with the rising demands of the community, in terms of number of IGLGs as well as the amount of the funds needed.

Different vocations and/or business enterprises with the underlying activities require different capital inputs.

The results of medium and large IGLGs give an indication of the possibility of these groups serving as general sales outlets for smaller IGLGs in the villages.

Marketing, business management, bookkeeping and constant source of raw materials constitute critical problems to be dealt with in a systematic way in each learning group.

Suggestions

To reduce the risk of failures, a thorough analysis of the prospect of a proposed business venture must be undertaken by the concerned group prior to awarding the learning fund.

To help the groups wanting to take up medium and larger scale of business enterprises, bigger learning funds should be provided.

To help solve marketing problems, IGLGs to serve as sales outlets should be established at kabupaten and provincial levels.

Learning materials specially designed for the Learning Fund Programme should be developed immediately.

Closing

As a saying goes: "There is no ivory which is not cracking", this report does not claim itself to be a perfect one. There must be shortcomings here and there, for which critique and suggestion from the readers will be appreciated. Finally, it is hoped that this report will be of value to its readers.

A. Surjadi is an Indonesian who is studying at the School of Education, Macquarie University, Australia. We include extracts from his paper which outlines nonformal education activities in Indonesia.

NONFORMAL EDUCATION IN INDONESIA

By A. Surjadi
School of Education,
Macquarie University.

The Present Situation

Indonesia faces a number of problems: illiteracy, drop-outs, children who are not accommodated in schools, unemployment and an unskilled population.

Illiteracy

At present the number of illiterate people is 29 million or 20 per cent of the population.

Drop-outs

Drop-outs seem to be unavoidable, especially from primary schools. The main cause, i.e. 73 per cent, is poverty.

The General Purposes of NFE (Nonformal Education)

Pelita II proclaims a view of education for Indonesia which goes beyond the boundaries of formal schooling: "Education, in fact, is a conscious effort to develop one's personality and abilities both in school and out-of-school during his life time.... All this is done through several means - the family, schools, youth organizations, the scout movement and others". The priority target for the out-of-school educational sector is stipulated as "... the 10-24 year age group who have never had the opportunity for formal schooling or, because of one reason or another, have dropped out at the early stages".

The stated major educational objective for this group is "... to provide opportunities for the development of individuals to become good citizens and productive workers". The focus on this age group should not be interpreted as a relegation of the task of out-of-school education to a "stop-gap" status within the overall education planning and development of Indonesia, but rather as a setting of priorities. It is implicit within the Pelita's expanded definition of education that all citizens, regardless of age, sex, or race should have equal access to expanded educational activities throughout their entire life. Thus education is not only viewed as being comprehensive in terms of school and out-of-school sectors, but also "lifelong" in character and "democratizing" in nature. (See Pelita II, Chapter 22).

Due to the fact that many Ministries conduct in and out-of-school activities, the Presidential Decree No. 34/72 and Instruction No. 15/74 were established. This Decree and Instruction formulated allocating the functional responsibility as follows:

The Minister of Education and Culture is responsible for the development of general and vocational education.

The Minister of Manpower is responsible for the development of skills and vocational training for personnel who are not government employees.

The Chairman of the Institute for State Administration is responsible for the development of education and training specifically for government employees.

The general/major objectives of NFE in Indonesia are as follows:

To provide the community with basic mental ability and essential skills.

To train community leaders to obtain knowledge and skill in order to educate people.

To educate women as important role players in the home.

To provide information and education to the young development worker for the good of himself and the community.

To awaken and guide the interest of the community to continuously increase knowledge, ability/skill by reading.

To improve knowledge and skills of government and non-government employees.

To prepare the youth for entrance into a specific job.

To improve skills and knowledge of the farmers in order to increase rice production.

To improve health and nutrition.

A brief description of the role of NFE

Before the War, various political parties, social associations and education used NFE to arouse Indonesian nationalism in people against Dutch colonialism. Boy scout clubs were established by those organizations to prepare the youth to be patriots struggling and achieving Indonesian independence. The expanding use of Bahasa Indonesia, the increasing awareness of being a nation, a national language and a common state, i.e. Indonesia, due to the use of Nonformal Educational activities run by the Indonesian leaders. The use of mass media such as newspapers and magazines, political party meetings and campaigns, boyscouts, various courses, religious activities, and social activities, were familiar at that time.

During the revolution, 1945-1950, this nationalism was crystallized through the war against the Dutch. The guerillas, government officers, students, and other people who evacuated from towns and cities to rural areas kept direct touch with the majority of people who lived in rural areas. The results were amazing. The people were suddenly shaken, awakened and participated in the revolution as a nation with the same slogan, freedom or die. In this situation a literacy campaign was launched as the result of the establishment of the Section of Community Education under the Ministry of Education, Instruction and Culture, in 1947.

After the revolution, the period of the literacy campaign began. Literacy campaigns were conducted throughout the country and spread even to isolated villages. On December 31, 1964, Bung Karno, the late President of the Republic, proclaimed that Indonesia was free from illiteracy.* Since 1950 the Government has concentrated on educating people in the broad sense. Community education launched equivalent courses for Junior and Senior High School. Extension workers on agriculture, health, inland fishery, and animal husbandry

* Census 1971 stated that 41.3 per cent (33,264,832) of 10 year olds and over were illiterate. This is because of lack of follow-up programs to improve the neo-literate abilities reading and writing.

spread over rural areas to introduce new varieties of rice, cattle breeding, fish breeding, new methods, fertilizer, and drugs. Rural broadcasts were launched through government radio stations throughout the country to support all activities done by those extension workers. The Government is very concerned in increasing food production due to the fact that the population growth rate is high, i.e. 2.3 per cent of 140 million.

Educational broadcasts were launched in some provinces to improve the quality of teachers, and in some provinces these broadcasts were concerned with out-of-school targets. In the field of health, courses for para professionals such as "dukun beranak" (midwives) were conducted. A Community Health Centre was built in every sub-district. Besides serving the people who visit it, it also serves people where they are, especially in the field of sanitation improvement. Family planning field workers move from house to house to motivate husbands or wives to be acceptors of family planning.

Another social welfare program is called "stimulasi berantai" (chain stimulation). This program supports the poor with credit. A small group of the poor is trained in a certain skill, such as brick or tile laying, bamboo weaving, or others. An amount of money is loaned to them. They use this money cooperatively, and they conduct an enterprise based on their skill. After making a profit, they have to pay back the money through credits. Another group of poor will get this money in turn, as their loan.

Mobile Training Unit (MTU) moves from village to village. During three months this MTU trains rural villagers or town poor people in skills they need, to improve their level of living. The private sector plays an important role in NFE. Various courses such as languages, home economics, vehicle repair, repair of electrical equipment, car driving, carpentry, traditional and modern dancing (including Western dance), typing, office administration, and others, are conducted by private enterprise.

A great variety of media and methods are used in those various NFE programs. Conventional approaches such as classical courses, individual face-to-face practice by family planning field workers, traditional arts and performance (puppet shadow show, wayang golek, reog, traditional drama), leaflets, brochures, slides, radio, film, language laboratories, modern drama and others, are the media and methods of NFE in Indonesia nowadays.

In short we can say that:

Before the war the aim of NFE programs was mainly to arouse the spirit of nationalism among the Indonesian people against Dutch colonialism.

Since independence NFE programs have aimed at liberating people from illiteracy, teaching them the knowledge and skills to improve their life, asking them to participate in a large scale development, and providing them with skills and knowledge for employment.

Various Ministries conduct NFE programs, whereas the private sector is usually concerned with commercial education.

Traditional as well as modern methods and media are being used in running these programs.

The Directorate of Community Education (PENMAS)

The Program.

The programs are:

Fundamental Education, consisting of literacy and numeracy courses (KPD = Kursus Pengetahuan Dasar) and its supporting program (KPPD = Kursus Pembina Pengetahuan Dasar).

Vocation Skills training such as carpentry, tailoring, bricklaying, chicken raising, photography, etc.

Family Life Education including Home Economics (PKK = Pendidikan Kesejahteraan Keluarga).

Learning Funds.

Supervising NFE programs run by private sector.

Supporting programs:

Training for Community Education Field Workers (CEFW = Penilik Penmas)

Training for staff members in learning materials/media development, monitoring, supervision and evaluation, management, etc.

Producing learning materials and media.

The strategy used to implement programs 1 - 4 is classical courses, apprenticeships, individual/self-learning and learning groups. It seems that the use of learning groups is the eminent one under the World Bank Loan. A learning group consists of 10 - 20 learners who come together and:

a. determine their own learning needs;

b. design a plan for meeting those needs;

c. arrange for the human and material resources necessary to meet these needs; and

d. carry out a learning process that fulfils those needs.

A learning group is free to decide whether to study fundamental education, vocational skills, or family life education.

The learning fund is a source of money from which small loans can be made to assist learning groups in converting skills into income producing activities.

There are 15 criteria to select a learning group to get a learning fund. Some of them are: the availability of dedicated learning facilitator, less educated and low income learners, the learning group has been supported by the community and the local government, the product is easy to market and so on.

The Directorate supervises the NFE programs run by private bodies. In 1977, the total number was 5,414 spread heavily over the four provinces in Java and North Sumatra. The Directorate organizes a standard final exam for them, and provides them with certificates. The total number of participants was 900,000.

There are four methods or approaches used by the Directorate in implementing the programs.

a. learning group

b. apprenticeship

c. individual/self-learning

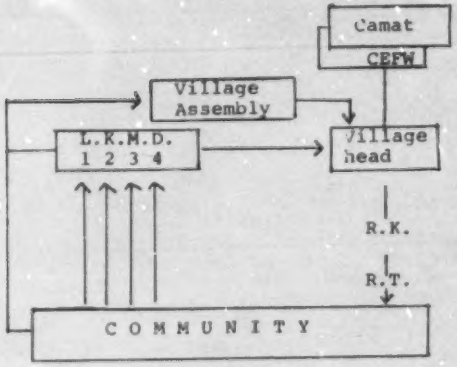
d. classical course.

The CEFW and the Supervisor of Culture do not have any relationship with the school. The CEFW has to work with the village head to implement his programs, although officially, he has no direct relationship with the village head.

The village head conducts a series of meetings attended by key persons, i.e. formal and informal community leaders. They are organized in a LKMD (Lembaga Ketahanan Masyarakat Desa). These meetings discuss the implementation of the program, i.e. who does what, why, when, where and how. By and large, these are about:

- motivating and recruiting the appropriate learners and learning resources (instructor, tutor, monitor, organizer);
- other learning needs and/or subjects;
- facilities and equipment;
- time schedule.

The following diagram describes the process of meeting.



Section:

1=Cooperative and Economic Development

2=Education

3=Sports & Youth

4=Social, Religious & Cultural Affairs

Learning group

The learning group is to study basic literary and numeracy and/or vocational skills. The text books called "Pakat A" (Package A) are provided for learning groups who study literacy and numeracy. This learning group is led by a "tutor" who motivates and teaches the members reading, writing and arithmetic. The use of learning groups is regarded as the most favourable strategy because of the characteristics of the Indonesian society, namely the people are accustomed to social groupings, there are numerous social groups in the society, formal and informal.

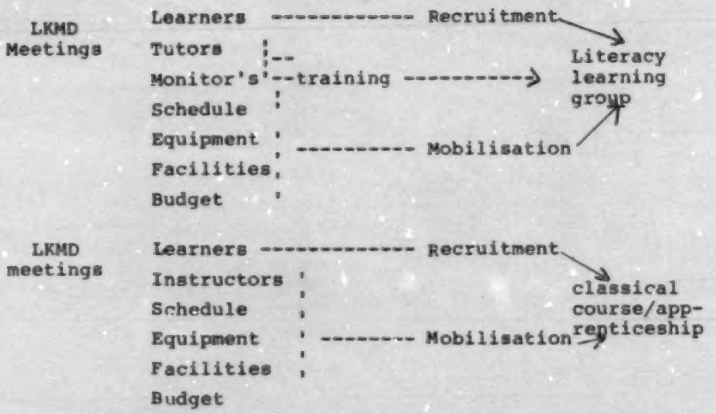
The informal clubs are those social groups which exist by the initiative and the activities of community members themselves without the help of government workers officially. Various social groups belong to this category, some are tied to religious activities such as "pengajian mingguan" (a weekly meeting studying Islamic teaching, led by an ulama), "kelompok arisan" (a group of men or women or both who each contributes an amount of money to the group and distribute the total amount by means of a ballot system), sports clubs, dance clubs, self defence clubs, social groups exist temporarily such as a limited number of men who always spend their afternoon hours in a village coffee shop, a group of women who spend their hours at a public/village well and while they are washing clothes and dishes they talk with, exchanging information. A CEFW can treat these groups as learning groups and as resource for tutors or instructors.

Apprenticeship is applied in a vocational skills learning group such as embroidery, sewing, welding and so on. The tutor is the skilled person who owns or works in a workshop. The teaching learning process strongly emphasizes doing.

Classical course is applied in a learning group who takes family life education, health, nutrition and so on. Frequently a CEFW has to recruit other extension workers such as agriculture, fishery, animal husbandry, or women's clubs such as Idhata to become instructors.

The above type of work is the key success of a CEFW. It is the Directorate's strategy to encourage community participation in the programs as it affects the budget. The program's unit cost is lower than that of other Ministries. The budget can be regarded as the Directorate's share.

The above process can be summarized in the following diagrams.



Through a series of inservice training courses under the World Bank loan a CEFW has been able to investigate the community's learning needs and resources in every village. Later he does the process described above. In short, he is an investigator, a motivator, "matchmaker", and supervisor. In 1976, the Directorate administered a survey to investigate the role of the CEFWs in the successful programs. The result summarizes the role as follows:

Identifying the learning needs of the people

Identifying the learning resources and bringing these resources to the group of people needing them.

Generating learning processes and activities which already exist locally.

Persuading and motivating the capable and skilled members of the community to teach their skills to others in need.

Organizing Nonformal Education classes.

Another role is monitoring, evaluation, supervising and reporting.

New terminologies are used by the Directorate such as "learning needs and resources" and "matchmaking". A few are confusing such as "facilitator, tutor, monitor". These reflect the

influence of the Center of International Education, University of Massachussets, the Institution of International Studies in Education - Michigan State University, and Proyek PAMONG Solo. The concept of learning need is derived from Individual Psychology (Skinner, Rogers, Knowles), where learning will take place effectively when it satisfies an individual's needs. (Srinivasan, 1975).

Another approach which has been tested by experiment is the "learner centered" approach. The learning groups had autonomy to decide: what to near, who the instructors were, and where they came from, where the learning would take place and when. A facilitator was in charge of motivating and directing the group discussions. Radio broadcasts supplemented the groups with a short "drama". The groups discussed the topic. Here the drama was designed as the discussion starter for the groups. The groups decided the topics proposed to be broadcast, and developed the plan/programs to follow up the discussions. Bulletin which presented a variety of practical knowledge and skills, humour and other information acted as a supplementary medium. Some of the content of the bulletins was contributed by the learners.

In this experiment, curriculum development was an on-going process using feedback/suggestions from the learners. This experiment was organized by the National Training Centre in Jayagiri, Melbang, West Java. (For further details see Kindervater, 1979: 149-81).

Constraints. (West Java case).

At the field level.

There is a lack of learning materials and equipment such as textbooks, sewing machines, kitchen hardward and so on. This could be overcome by borrowing from the community or instructors. The CEFW regarded it would be unwise to borrow continuously. Controversely other Ministries' programs provided better payment and complete equipment. The participants of the training courses were granted the equipment to implement the skills trained.

Budget. Compared with other Ministries' programs the Community Education's budget was small. The unit cost for a Family Life Education course was Rp. 16,600 (A $24). R. 9600 (A $13.5) was provided for instructors' incentive who had taught 144 meeting hours within 2-3 months. The rest was

provided for equipment and materials. There was no budget for supervision or report writing. The proper unit cost estimated by the CEFW's was at least Rp. 500,000 (A $ 715). The incentive for literacy tutor was Rp. 6000 (A $8.5) for 3 months.

A few district officers have stated that the distribution of jobs was like a pyramid, and that of the budget was the reversed pyramid. However, this statement should be regarded as an hypothesis.

Learning resources (tutors, instructors)

There is an impression that nowadays the villagers are reluctant to do "gotongroyong" (mutual self-help) to build primary schools, roads, irrigation, etc. They fully rely on Pelita and Inpres programs. Due to the diversity of budgets, instructors/tutors favour a better paid program. It was hard for a CEFW to recruit them. Because of this a few CEFWs suggested that they themselves should be trained in various subjects and skills and let do the teaching. This suggestion, of course, does not conform to the Community Education's model of work as explained above.

Mobility. Since the CEFWs did not have motorcycles and the supervision's budget was not available, their mobility was low. Those who owned private motorcycles could do the supervision, but those who did not, had to integrate their schedules with that of other extension workers who were provided with vehicles.

Bureaucracy. A time consuming procedure was applied to pay instructors/tutors. The procedure asked for a number of lists to be added to the official forms. In fact, the CEFWs did not have budgets for office supplies. This procedure took a relatively long time.

Follow-up programs. It was hard to organize a follow-up program due to the limitation of the budget system of administration. Related programs that should have been implemented sequentially, had been organized simultaneously, or there was no follow-up program at all.

At the Provincial and National levels -

The Directorate summarizes the major issues:

"How to balance the need for using the National language with the need for using local languages?

How, with training, do we change the attitude and behaviour of our staff from those of formal education to those of nonformal education?

How can we organize resources and motivate learners and "teachers"?

What are the effects of nonformal education that we should be measuring and how do we measure these qualitative effects of nonformal education?"

Budgets from the National Office came down late to the Provincial Offices. The programs had to be delayed and rearranged again, e.g. the training for the Heads of Subdistrict Offices and the learning funds of 1979/80.

The Micropu is not appropriate for Indonesia as it needs a special size and weight of HVS paper, and other technical requirements.

It has been proved that the success of the programs are heavily dependent upon:

the dedication of the CEFW

the appropriate identification of the real/felt needs

the support of the community

the support of local government (village and subdistrict)

the respective village headmen.

If these factors are not fully present, then it is hard for a CEFW to carry out the programs successfully.

Conclusion

Due to the complexity of the present situation, NFE programs are run by a variety of Ministries. The Presidential Decree No. 34/72 and Instruction No. 15/74 were established to reorganize and increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the programs.

The Directorate of Community Education (Penmas), runs the programs of "income generating skills" and "quality of life" improvement. The Directorate's approach is community participation in carrying out the program. A CEFW's role is that of a motivator, catalyst and supervisor.

A new approach in developing and implementing programs has been applied. The programs have to satisfy the learners' needs and the National policy. The synchronisation of "top down and bottom-up approach" is reflected in the programs.

A variety of constraints due to facilities, equipment, budget and management exist in the field, provincial and National levels which affect the implementation of the programs. Besides, the changing rural com munity also affects the programs.

It is worthwhile to examine the role of CEFW due to the nature of the work, the target to be accomplished, the budget available, and the changing rural community.

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A training of trainers exercise conducted at Seva Mandir, Udaipur, India, is the focus of this paper by Seemantinee Khot of the Society for Participatory Research in Asia. It is a very thorough account of the exercise as seen from both the trainers' and trainees' points of view. It provides another example of establishing the needs of participants and relating these to the needs of the organisation to which the participants belong.

TRAINING OF TRAINERS: AN EXPERIENCE

By Seemantinee Khot*

Introduction

Seva Mandir, a rural development organization in Rajasthan, conducted a training program, during 9th and 15th September, 1983. It took place at their 'Kaya Training Centre.' Thirty participants who attended the training program were mainly grassroot level workers of Seva Mandir. The trainers were Om Shrivastava, Seva Mandir and Dr. Rajesh Tandon from PRIA.

The content of the training program was decided by asking the participants in advance as to what are their training needs. Among the various topics that were identified as training areas, one was: "How to be a good trainer?" "How to conduct a training program?" About seven people selected this topic for their learning.

Following is an account of the training that this group of seven trainees took, on "training". This write-up will tell you:

What exactly this group wanted to learn about training?

Which methods were chosen to learn it?

How did they learn training?

What was learnt?

How was their learning assessed?

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What could not be learnt? Why?

Dr. Rajesh Tandon addressed this group, emphasizing the need and importance of training in the field of social work and rural development. "Participatory Training" is a most effective type of training and that was the training that was being conducted.

The trainees were asked to list the things they wanted to learn about training. They discussed this amongst themselves and derived the following points that they thought should be covered.

What exactly did this group want to learn about training?

1. How to create and maintain a learning atmosphere in training?
2. How to prepare participants for learning?
3. How to define objectives of a training program?
4. How to decide on the content?
5. How to be sensitive to trainees' needs?
6. How to encourage and maintain the participation of trainees in the training?
7. How to plan timing of different sessions and to observe it?
8. Which different roles does an effective trainer play?
9. How to make use of trainees' resources?
10. How to repeat the content of training for different individuals depending on their previous orientation to the topic?
11. How to evaluate, both continuously and finally, a training program?
12. How to keep both possibility and structure in the training program?
13. How to coordinate between trainees?

It took about 45 minutes to arrive at these thirteen learning objectives. Dr. Rajesh Tandon then suggested the following methods to fulfil these objectives.

Which methods where chosen to learn?

Trainers input by lecture

The trainers from their wide experiences will guide the trainees on the areas, which are more technical than others and so will not be obvious through observation to the trainees. These will be 3,4,7 and 12 as numbered above in learning objectives.

Observation by the trainees.

Learning objectives numbered 1,2,5,6,8,9 and 13 will be studied by observing the present training program, within which this training is being given. Internal discussion within this trainee group will further clarify the above points.

Doing

The best way of learning training is by being a trainer, getting experience and then analysing it. Some topics to be covered in this training will be given to this trainees group to conduct independently.

Reading

For basic principles and technical aspects of training, reading will be helpful. Some books were selected and kept for study.

How did they learn? What was learnt?

Trainers input by lecture

Dr Rajesh Tandon shared some of his thoughts on the following learning objectives, some were listed by trainees while some were additional.

How to define objectives of a training program?

Objectives should be realistic. For example, it will be an unrealistic expectation from a training program that it will change the structure of an organization. Training has its limitations and it should be thus recognized. Individuals may change in the course of training, not structure.

Objectives should be trainee oriented. That is based on the needs, demands and interest of the trainee, and not, for example, in the interest of their superiors.

A questionnaire, individual interview or group interview can be used to find out what the trainees expect from the training. A questionnaire and many informal discussions were used to set the objectives of this training program.

If the objectives are specific, training is easier, but sometimes they are vague and broad. For example, a training objective can prepare good trainers. A trainer who has a clear idea in his mind of what characterizes a good trainer, can then operationalize this broad training objective into specific contents.

How to decide the contents of a training program?

The contents of a training program can be derived from the objectives. The decision on contents should be taken in consultation with trainees. This can be done by talking to them individually or by conducting a discussion at the beginning of the training program. Their suggestions also can be sought through a questionnaire.

For example, in this training program, it was done through a questionnaire and a discussion on it on the first day. The participants of this training were of different levels: from barely literate to professional social workers, from block coordinators who have played a responsible role for ten years to those who have joined last month as a village level worker, from people committed to Seva Mandir to those who are completely outsiders. Due to this variation in education, experience, relationship with Seva Mandir etc., it was a critical task to assess and list down the objectives of the training.

How to choose methods?

Methods are chosen after analysing the contents. Different methods need to be used for different contents. If the content is categorized in the following manner the choice of

methods can be made easily. Example of contents, the main categories under which content can be divided, the appropriate methods for each category, reasons to use thoue methods for that particular category and its pitfalls are given in table 1 below:

Table No. 1

Training Methods

Content	Category	Methods	Reasons	Pitfalls
- What is Marxism? - What is the theory of development. - Green Revolution - Five year Planning - Dairy technology - I R D P Program	KNOWLEDGE	a) Lecture b) Reading	Knowledge can be achieved only by study. One who has already studied can brief the trainees on it. Reading to acquite knowledge is more useful, it can be started in training program but needs to be continued.	In lectures there is less participation. So it should be combined with a group discussion. If trainees are illiterate, reading is not possible. Someone can read it aloud in this case. If there is time shortage bibliography should be distributed.
- What is the value system of our group? - What is the influence of religion on villagers? - What are my attitudes? - Is our program acceptable to villagers? - What are the power dynamics in the village?	AWARENESS	a) Dialogue b) Discussion c) Role play d) Exercises/ stimulation games.	To raise awareness review of different opinions is needed. These methods facilitate that. Besides creating an experience during the training itself can provide material for analyses which further facilitates awareness raising.	These methods generate a lot of emotions and hence require skilful handling otherwise the learning of participants can suffer.
- How to give a lecture? - How to write reports? - How to communicate effectively? - How to give training? - How to organize a meeting? - How to plan a program? - How to conduct evaluation?	SKILLS	a) Giving demonstration. b) Providing opportunity.	Skills can be acquired only by practice. No skills can be learnt by listening to a lecture. So if the trainees want to acquire or develop their skill in certain areas providing enough time for them to practice is the best way.	The trainer can bring in the skilled resource persons and need not be skilled himself in all. However practice entails the possibility of failure. The trainer must ensure that initial fears of failure are dealt with.

How to prepare training design?

The trainer should prepare a complete design of the training program beforehand. It is essential because it gives an idea of the time frame in which all objectives are to be covered.

There is a sample design illustrated below:

Table No 2

Sample Training Design

	Day 1 Date:	Day 2 Date:	Day 3 Date:	Day 4 Date:
Session 1 8 to 10	Introduction	Lecture	Reading	Lecture
Session 2 10.15 to 12.30	Defining objectives content planning	Group discussions	Writing Assignment	Group Discussions
Lunch 12.45 to 1				
Session 3 2 to 4	Exercise	Demonstration	Role Play	Group Discussions
Session 4 4.15 to 6.30	Group Discussions	Lecture	Lecture	Cultural Program
Supper 6.30 to 8				
Session 5 8.30 to 10	Planning	Feedback	Feedback planning review	Evaluation

Some points that a trainer should keep in mind while preparing training design:

Keep the first session for introduction.

See that objectives of the training are defined with the trainees before the training starts.

Plan the content and time framework with them.

During morning sessions trainees will be fresh and have greater concentration, hence lectures and reading assignments can be fruitfully used.

The session after lunch should be designed with methods which will require high level participation, like an exercise so that trainers are able to concentrate despite post lunch drowsiness.

Looking at the toilet, bathing and other residential facilities, the timing to begin and end the days should be planned. For example, if the training centre does not have enough toilets or there is water shortage, trainees will not be able to finish their morning chores before they join the sessions. Or if some (or all) of the trainees are not staying at the place of training they might have difficulty in reaching the training venue too early. In such cases the training might not even begin till 10 a.m. everyday; while in other cases in order to finish the day earlier it might start as early as 7 a.m. This the trainer has to decide along with the trainees and the persons who are arranging the program.

If the training is of more than a week's duration, a day off in the middle is found to be a useful arrangement in the design.

Small breaks before and after series sessions (like lectures) are advisable.

Games in the evening and/or cultural programs after dinner are often put in the design and have proved to be very useful in maintaining cheerful atmosphere and hence good for learning.

A review of the days' sessions, feedback from the trainees, changes in the planning for the next and/or the rest of the days is very significant in participatory training.

The last session should be kept for final evaluation of the whole training program.

The design of each session is also very important. It gives a clear idea of the process that will be carried out in the session. Session design, to be prepared in advance, should include following items (see table 3).

Table No 3

Sample of a single session design

	Date : September 12, 1983 Time : 2.30 to 4.30 pm Participants: 30
Objective:	To enlighten the trainees on what is "effective listening".
Method & content	1. Role play - which reflects bad methods. 2. Monologue - which highlights the importance of good listening in the field work. 3. Dialogue - two trainers dialogue which reflects their good listening of monologue plus it will give out principles of effective listening. 4. Display of a sheet on which these principles are written. 5. Exercise for trainees (divided in smaller groups). 6. Reporting on the exercise to relate their experiences to the principles of effective listening, barriers to effective listening, effective listening as a reinforcement to effective speaking.
Time Plan	1. Role play 7 minutes 2. Monologue 3 minutes 3. Dialogue 15 minutes 4. Exercise Explanation 5 minutes 5. Exercise 30 minutes 6. Reporting 20 minutes 7. Conclusion 10 minutes 8. Feedback 10 minutes + Slack Time 20 minutes 2 hours
Trainers Responsibilities	Role play - Anita, Seema Manohar Singh Monologue - Anita Dialogue - Seema, Manohar Singh Display of sheet - Seema Exercise explanation - Seema Supervision of exercise - Seema, Manohar, Anita. Reporting : Anita Conclusion : Manohar Singh Feedback : Rajesh Tandon, Om Shrivastva
Preparation	1. Role play - Deciding the theme and process. Characterization organize stage props needed. Practising it before the session. 2. Monologue - Write up and practice. 3. Dialogue - Prepare the content and practice. 4. Exercise - Choose one. Write down its rules. Practice giving it. 5. Material for exercise - List of individuals in each group to be divided for exercise, rules of the exercise on a paper for each group, report sheet. 6. A big brown sheet of paper. Principles effective listening written on it in capital letters. 7. Ask Dr. Rajesh Tandon and Om Shrivastava for their help in the feedback session.

** This session design was prepared by the trainees of this training program, who were learning "training".

How to bring flexibility to design (structure)?

Looking at the structure of design it might seem very rigid. It also becomes rigid if the trainer is not well prepared. While preparing for each session the trainer should overstructure the session so that he has the option to reject some aspects of the session. For example, if the session is of three hours he should prepare himself for four hours session. If the training material required is only of two types, he should carry two additional ones. With this overpreparedness a trainer can afford to be flexible. Overstructure also helps to take care of slack time, if the session is over before the assigned duration. It is the availability of the options that provides for flexibility.

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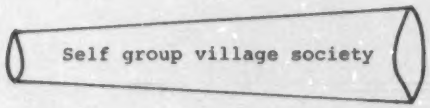
If the trainer is planning to cover eight points in relation to an objective and he is prepared to cover fifteen, but in the given time only seven could be covered, he should not insist on finishing all the fifteen points. It causes indigestion among the trainees. So a trainer should feel comfortable in giving only as much as the trainees are ready to take. He need not be rigid in sticking to his own design fully.

How to maintain flow of content?

Once the trainer lists down all the topics to be covered to fulfil the objectives, he should decide the order in which he is going to tackle those. Which ones should be covered first and which ones later?

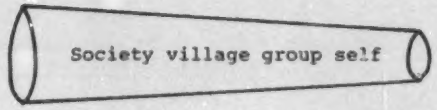
There are some topics which are global in nature, are related to village, society, country, world. Some others are more personal: i.e. self, group. The personal areas are delicate and sensitive and trust and cohesiveness among the trainees is needed to open up the individuals in these areas. The global areas can be tackled in spite of other characteristics. So the trainer has to study the group of trainees and the individual members in it. Once he gets an idea of the characteristics of trainee group he can proceed further to decide from where to start; how and where to reach. There can be three models to deal with the content areas ranging from personal to global:

Model a:



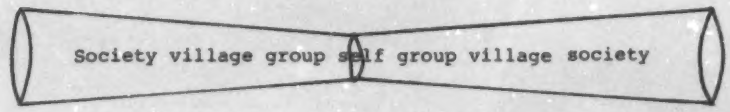
This model is possible if the group members know each other and the trainer well, and feel comfortable to talk about 'self' right from the start. It also depends upon how familiar the trainer is with the trainees.

Model b:



Some groups are comprised of strangers. Naturally they will not feel comfortable or free to talk about themselves. It is advisable to use model b for such groups, in which initially they talk about global issues which are not directly related to them'selves', but gradually they may become closer to each other and develop trust. Then more personal areas can be discussed.

Model c:



This is a safer model than the other two, which can be used by a trainer who does not know the trainees group. Here the trainer starts with global issues, touches personal in the middle and concludes with global issues.

How to deal with multiple levels of trainees?

Often there are different levels among the trainees, due to variation in education, hierarchial positions in the organization, age etc. While designing training these levels should be considered. People of different levels feel uncomfortable in sharing their personal experiences. So people of similar levels should be put in smaller groups. Similarly while discussing areas related to organization, if there is any conflict within an organization, it helps to sharpen the conflict by keeping the people of similar levels together: the individuals in positions of power in one group

and individuals in weaker positions in another. They would discuss within themselves first and then both the groups can be brought together to interact, to help resolve the conflicts.

Dr Rajesh Tandon then answered some practical questions asked by participants. They were as follows:

What is the optimum number of participants?

Usually more than ten and less than thirty participants is an easy range to handle. But there is no fixed principle about optimum number of participants. It depends on the objectives, content, duration, level of participants, their orientation to training topics, and constraints of infra-structural arrangement and limitations of budget.

If there are more trainees, they can be divided into smaller groups. However, it is advisable to get more trainers/ resource persons, if the number of participants increases.

What should be the timing and duration of good training program?

It is a very important consideration, which mainly depends on availability of trainees and trainers, as well as on the learning objectives of the training program. If the objectives are many, the training duration has to be longer than when there is shorter agenda. But there is no rigid rule about length of a training program.

In participatory training the main consideration becomes the convenience of the trainees. If the training is conducted while trainees are feeling tension of pending work, however good is the content, it will not bring satisfactory impact. So to ensure better learning, the planning of timing and duration of all the sessions and the whole program should be done in consultation with the trainees.

How to choose venue for a training program?

Participatory training gives importance to a residential approach. It becomes easier to maintain learning atmosphere if the trainees stay at the place of training. But the possibility of overnight training camps have to be examined for each program separately, since it depends on practical

adjustments of the trainees as well as those who are arranging the training.

The venue, as far as possible, should be chosen considering the barriers to concentration. If the training takes place in quieter atmosphere it will not divert the attention of the trainees by external noise. At the same time, in order to find a peaceful place the difficulty in trainees reaching there should not be overlooked.

Observations of the trainers and group discussion among them.

The trainees thought about the present training program and each one gave his/her observations on the following aspects. It was a learning process in order to know more about how to conduct training.

How to create and maintain atmosphere of training?

The process of creating atmosphere began before the training started. The trainers had informal talks with the trainees in the field about their expectation and scope of training.

Filling in the questionnaire made trainees look forward to the training. The psychological preparations were already started beforehand.

The new workers were approached by senior workers and briefed about the training program and its scope. Some practical help was also given like adjustment on the family front.

In the beginning the trainers introduced everyone. The group was standing in a circle. It brought informality. Also the way trainers gave their own introduction and asked others was very friendly. Introduction was meant to be very brief: name, place and kind of work. This nominal introduction was done knowing that many trainees already know each other.

After this initial introduction, there were some exercises. These were meant to open up the trainees. The choice of exercises was based on the need to bring the trainees closer to each other, which would provide an atmosphere of psychological safety, useful for better learning.

The first exercise was of group formation. In this three persons from the group of thirty were called to be leaders. The leaders would form a group of their own. The leaders would choose members one by one, from the group of trainees standing in a circle. After making the choice the leader would tell the person why he is chosen. Then the leader and the first member would decide whom to choose next; person chosen would be called and told why he/she is chosen. Thus all the three leaders in turn would add members to their groups. And there would be three groups.

This exercise helped the trainees to feel comfortable with each other. While being called into the group, they were told the positive qualities due to which they were accepted in the group. In the fast decision-making, group members interacted and developed, 'we feeling'.

This group formation exercise was then analysed to relate to actual group formation in the field. Based on the behaviour of the leaders and decision-making pattern in the exercise, good and bad approaches to group formation were pointed out. Those who were not accepted in any group for a long time were also made to think why they were not chosen. This too was later related to the real field example.

In the second exercise, the groups formed by above exercise sat together, to share personal experiences of success and something which others in the group don't know about one-self. This brought the trainees even closer to each other. Through self understanding and understanding others, a trusting relationship was formed.

In the third exercise, the members of the groups shared experiences of failure and together analysed it, focusing on reasons of failure. Presentation of successful stories makes one comfortable in the group but sharing failure is possible only when this group is comfortable together. The attitudes and values of members came out while analysing these experiences. Thus the group learnt more about each other.

All the three exercises were helpful for "ice-breaking". The choice of games was based on knowledge of trainees back-ground. The group formation was done by natural way by choice, collective decision. So it was expected that members in a group would be of one level, and will feel comfortable with each other. The groups were small which

helped to dispel hesitation in a short time. Understanding each others problems and failures makes people come closer more than sharing only happy incidents. Analysing each other's experiences brought out mutual helping process, which was expected to be continued throughout the training program.

Om Shrivastava being a trainer also joined the exercise. It was done to break his authoritative position in Seva Mandir.

Questionnaires, introduction, exercises are the examples of what was done specificaliy to create an atmosphere. Besides that, throughout the training program, the trainers maintained it successfully. The trainees assessed it's contributory factors as:

* Trainers informal style and friendly nature.
* Trainers sensitivity to the trainees.
* Use of variation to avoid monotony.
* Accommodation of cultural activities in the training design.
* Relations between trainers and trainees outside the sessions.
* Providing full scope and encouragement for participation.
* Incorporating trainees suggestions.
* Jokes cracked when atmosphere got serious.

How to be sensitive to the trainees' needs?

Energy level - The trainers have been sensitive to trainees' energy level. Whenever it went low they tackled it in the following ways:

Making use of trainers authority role: For example, in the first night session, the group was completely silent and trainees were not taking active part in the agenda building, which was the objective of that session. One of the trainers brought this behaviour to the group's notice in strong words and asked the group why were they not participating. Here he used his authority role to remind the group that it was their task to prepare an agenda, which due to lack of energy was being neglected.

Changing the activity: When there was low energy level, sometimes the activity was changed. For example, one of the trainers noticed that during the demonstration of monthly meeting the trainees who were not involved in the demonstration started showing low energy symptoms. He took a decision to break the group into four smaller groups according to their blocks and evaluate their monthly meetings and the demonstration was discontinued.

Breaking the session: Twice it happened in their training that though the content of the session was not over, the sessions were discontinued. This helped in increasing trainees participation in later sessions.

The group then discussed how the energy level can be judged. The indicators are categorized under three headings:

Verbal	Complete silence, irritated responses, raising irrelevant points, whispering, giggling, making noise by talking within smaller groups, asking for repetition etc.
Non-Verbal	Looseness in sitting, facial expressions, leaving the sessions, sleepiness, drowsiness, yawning, not listening, looking here and there, restlessness, etc.
Being sensitive to oneself	The trainer can gauge the energy level by being sensitive to his/her self. For example, when a session is stretched too long, the trainer himself starts feeling exhausted, even if he does not notice verbal or non-verbal indicators. This should be taken as a hint that even the trainees must be feeling equally exhausted. An example of this was the time extension given to cultural program. The trainer himself felt the need for relaxation and entertainment. Realizing this as the need of others as well, he postponed the steering committee meeting scheduled for that time.

How to provide scope for, encourage and maintain the participation of trainees?

Participation of trainees was sought at different levels.

* Planning the training program - dates, duration, objectives.
* Preparing the agenda. Designing the content.
* Conducting the training.
* Controlling the training.
* Evaluation. As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire helped to give a feeling to the trainees that they are involved in the planning of training. The use of questionnaire was demonstrated in a session to prepare the agenda in which the trainees' participation was most important. The distribution of content over five days was also in consultation with the trainees. A steering committee of six persons was appointed from the trainees to give feedback on behalf of trainees as well as help the trainees to implement the training objectives. A different group of trainees were given responsibility to conduct training. Besides this, after every session, comments of trainees were sought and at the end of day a general evaluation was done informally. In the final evaulation also each one was involved. Thus right from the beginning the trainers in an inviting tone, kept the participation level of trainees quite high.

Besides this some other methods like 'demonstration by trainers sustained the interest of the trainees. They were supposed to learn by 'doing'. Responsibilities for different tasks (like watching time limit, report writing, observation and even conducting a complete session) were given to the trainers. Encouragement given by the trainers to different individuals evoked similar responses from the trainees. The trainers recognize the importance of encouragement by trainer to the trainee. Trainees urge to get compliments from the authority figure of the trainer was duly fulfilled. It gave confidence to trainees which was reflected in high participation.

Those who were silent were forced to say at least one sentence in the beginning. Once they were drawn in the discussion, they were further involved in it. Similarly those who dominated the sessions were told tactfully that others also need opportunity to express their opinions.

Giving a principle and asking trainees to analyse their field experience based on that or first asking the field experience and then deriving theory from it was also a model of some sessions. This way of directly relating principles to trainer work experience kept the trainees involved.

Which different roles does an effective trainer play?

The different roles played by the trainer of this training program were analysed:

Facilitator - This role was strongly played in the group discussion sessions.

Coordinator - When the trainees gave training the trainers coordinated them.

Friend - Trainers friendly relations with the trainees helped the training to be a success. The trainees felt free to express themselves. And the trainers also were able to get feedback about training.

Encourager - Those who were silent, less confident were encouraged by the trainers to be more active. This was done consciously. Trainers support was very useful in opening up some individuals.

Guide - The guidance given to the trainees who became trainers, in conducting the sessions was valuable.

Authoritative - In certain situations an authoritative figure was seen in the trainer. That was mainly for discipline, punctuality and control of chaos in order to achieve the objectives in given time.

Mobilizer - By mobilizing resources of the trainees, the trainers gave the responsibility of half the session to the trainees to conduct.

Organizer - Throughout the program there was no chaos. The organized efforts of the trainers kept the group of thirty participants of different levels together in healthy spirit. No sessions were delayed, the material for the sessions was prepared beforehand, each session was evaluated and the suggestions incorporated. There was scope for everyone to speak but seldom was it dominated by single individual. Different methods were experimented for training and outside resource persons were called but the program seemed very smooth. This shows that the trainers were good organizers, they organized themselves, the participants and other resources.

Administrator - Control over infrastructure was an important element in the smooth operation of the training. There was no disturbance due to food or water problems.

Learner - When the trainees gave training, the trainers played the role of learner. They sincerely attended the sessions. Their effective listening in these sessions was a good demonstration of how to be a good learner. The questions raised by them as a learner to the trainees (who were giving training) showed their interest.

Constant analyzer - The trainees were continuously analyzing the content, method, their role and participation of trainees. This made them more effective in every role they performed.

Some of the striking characteristics of their roles were noted as:

Coordination between trainers. As one of the trainees openly described their coordination was a "Ram Laxman" Model. They performed supplementary and complementary roles to each other. For example when one became authoritative in agenda building session the other one was more supportive. When some information was left out by one the other one completed it.

Joint program planning and analyses

The trainees often saw the trainers together before and after the sessions, when they planned and analysed the session.

Division of labour and responsibility

The trainers knowing each others abilities and potentials well, divided their tasks. While one conducted group discussions the other one would conclude with comments.

Briefing each other

When they divided their work and conducted sessions separately, they reported to each what went on in their groups, and consulted each other for further steps. When one of them had to leave the program for half a day, on his return he was briefed on all the incidents. Thus there was continuous interaction among the trainers.

Non-verbal communication was used often to take instant decisions. For example, to stop a particular trainee who would dominate a session. Or to suggest that the session should be concluded, the trainers with their eyes or gestures communicated to each other.

Role reversal: The trainers not only played multiple roles but also reversed those between themselves. One trainer who played a leading role in one session would take subordinate role in the next one. The exchange of their positions were natural and frequent. This also helped to break monotony and made the session more interesting.

United front: Sometimes the trainers differed in their opinions but they maintained a united posture throughout the training.

Flexibility - The trainers were continuously changing their roles as needed and they were able to play multiple roles simultaneously.

Low profile - The trainers maintained a low profile of themselves to invite more participation from the trainees.

Congruence - There was congruence in preaching and practice of the trainers.

Informality and genuineness - The trainers were open, informal, friendly and not hypocrites.

The trainers kept their pace with the trainees.

How to make use of trainees' resources?

The trainers assessed the resources in three ways:

Questionnaire - Some items in it gave indications of the skills and the strengths of the trainees.

Verbal expression - Resources also were gathered from what a trainee said about himself.

Report - The trainers had advanced knowledge of what most trainees are good at, since they knew trainees background and work.

After finding the strengths of each trainee, those who had similar strengths were put together, and those with similar weaknesses put together. Weaknesses of some individuals were strengths of others. For example, some trainees wanted to learn how to give a lecture, while some had it as their strength. The latter designed and gave a session of "delivering lecture" to those who wanted to learn.

For most points on the agenda there were groups of trainees who were weak in it and who were strong in it. The strong group became a trainers group for that point on the agenda. For the next point on the agenda these trainers were then in the trainees role. Thus all the trainees get a chance to become a trainer. This model of "trainee became trainers" was found very useful. When the trainees put their foot into trainers shoes they realized what it is to be in those shoes.

So when they were taking training from their colleagues they showed understanding. To become a trainer, they also had to revise their topic and thus then too learnt more about their topics of interest.

To develop the resources of trainees to act as trainers the trainers did following things:

Explored their resources to the fullest.

Gave them material to read.

Sat with them in planning the session.

Gave full independence to conduct the session.

Evaluated the session and them as trainers separately.

Gave suggestions to improve individually.

Doing.

The model which is explored above, "Trainee became trainers" provided opportunities to this group to become trainers. Two sessions were conducted by dividing themselves into subgroups. The two topics were problem solving and effective listening.

The principles of good training learnt in the last two days were to be incorporated in the training design. There was one day for preparations. The trainees became so interested that they sat till late in the night preparing. The session design of one of the groups is illustrated in table 3.

The trainees got practical insights on different skills that are needed, especially coordination among trainees, time bound planning and sticking to it, preparation to conclude the session, giving scope for trainees comments and taking them.

How was their learning assessed?

To assess what the trainees have learnt the trainers listened to their observations, attended the sessions they conducted and gave them feedback.

The trainers were impressed with the minute observation of the trainees. They added to some principles that were derived from the ongoing training program. Some of the observations gave new insights to them, they admitted that some things which they do unconsciously were brought to their notice.

About the sessions, general comment was that the trainees did quite well but should improve by practice. There was a short feedback session immediately after the session but it was more general in nature. Some individual comments were given, for example, competitive spirit came out too strongly in one of the individuals which was harmful to performing a trainers role, especially in a team. Besides this the trainers had reserved some comments to be given separately to this group only. Since there was time shortage the rest of the sessions had to be conducted for all the trainees together. So it was not possible to separate this trainees group which took training on 'training' to assess their 'doing'.

What could not be learnt?

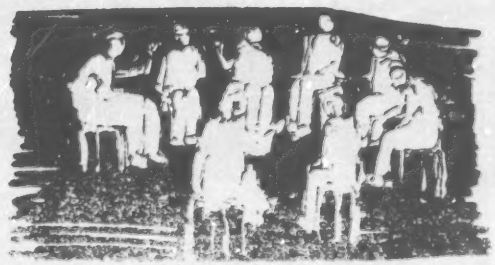
Out of the thirteen learning objectives set by this group only two were left. Those are numbers 10 and 11. Namely (10) How to repeat content of training for different individuals depending on their previous orientation related to that topic? and (11) How to evaluate both continuously and finally, a training program? But some additional areas were also explored by them which were not in the objectives. These valuable additions were in the following areas; choosing appropriate method, preparing training design and session design, maintaining content flow, dealing with multiple levels of trainees, and some other practical points like deciding number, timing, duration and venue of training programs.

The trainees were satisfied by what they learnt in a short time. But this learning raised more questions in their mind, which could be listed but there was no time lift. One of the most common responses from the trainees was that, "we need some more such sessions. Practice is very essential but inputs by these experienced trainers are very useful guide-lines". If there was some more time, like another two days, it would have been better, or the training should have been specifically "on training". In this training program preparation of good trainers was only one of the many objectives, but it was definitely a very crucial and difficult one. On the whole one can say that considering the limited time that was given for this objective, the achievement was possible only due to appropriate methods, content and efforts.

Importance of training of trainers

In the field of social development, many organizations are increasingly feeling the need of training. Training of different levels of workers as well as the people. Increasing complexity in the development work adds to such a need. Unless there are good trainers available in the field this need can not be fulfilled. Some voluntary organizations give training to their own workers. Such training, being their secondary objective many a time, yields only limited results, while many other agencies cannot provide such training due to lack of resources. So preparation of competent trainers is very essential. Instead of calling trainers from outside, if there are trainers available in the organization itself, it will serve the purpose of training. But such individuals who have potentials to be a good trainer, either don't get an opportunity to conduct training or do so without getting trained themselves.

The experience of training of trainers described in this paper is a good example of how more trainers can be made available. If these trainers in turn conduct more training, it will have a multiple effect and it will help to resolve the problem of training in the development field.



In 1978, when the Australian National Parks and Wildlife Service made an agreement with the Northern Land Council to establish Kakadu National Park, it also agreed to train Aborigines from local communities to become park rangers. Brian Lee discusses how the Service has gone about running its two successful programs to date, and what it has learned.

WHO TEACHES WHO?*

By Brian Lee,
Information and Education
Co-ordinator, Australian
National Parks and
Wildlife Service.

Kakadu National Park in the Northern Territory is a national park with a difference. Listed as a World Heritage Area, the park does more than preserve a truly remarkable landscape, its vegetation, and its wildlife; it allows the Aborigines who live there and their culture to coexist in reasonable peace.

In terms of their traditional law, the Aborigines of the Alligator Rivers Region some 220 km east of Darwin have always owned the area. They acquired 'official' title to the land in the European sense after the passing of the Northern Territory Aboriginal Land Rights Act in 1976. On 3 November 1978, they signed an agreement with the Director of the Australian National Parks and Wildlife Service to lease it back for 100 years for management as a national park. Proclamation of Kakadu National Park came about five months later on 5 April 1979.

Under the terms of the agreement between the Director and the Northern Land Council (which acts for the traditional Aboriginal owners in the northern half of the Northern Territory), the Director agreed to establish a program of training Aboriginal people to take their part in managing the national park.

The Australian National Parks and Wilflife Service (ANPWS) acted quickly. Within weeks of signing the agreement, and before the park had been proclaimed, its staff had made arrangements for organising the first training program for Aborigines. This got under way in March 1979. One year later, in April 1980, the first five trained Aborigines became fully fledged rangers, graduates of the first ever program of its kind.

Today, four years later and after two 12-month courses have been successfully completed, eight (including two women) out of ten of the trainees originally selected have now settled well into their new roles - and in doing so have proved the sceptics wrong. A third training course with four trainees began during December last year. All trainees who finish the course are guaranteed jobs in Kakadu National Park, and ANPWS takes care to ensure that the skills of each individual Aboriginal Ranger match the duties to which he or she is assigned.

Establishing the program presented a major challenge - nobody had ever done anything quite like it before. Who should conduct it, and how should the trainees be selected? How long should the course be, what subjects should be included, and what facilities would be needed? How would it be financed? ANPWS sought advice from various Commonwealth and Northern Territory agencies, the Northern Land Council, and the traditional owners of the park. It received an enthusiastic response. The Commonwealth Department of Employment and Youth Affairs in particular assisted both the first and succeeding courses by providing the means for financially supporting the trainees through its National Employment Strategy for Aborigines (NESA) scheme.

For both the original and succeeding courses, selection of the trainees has been left to the local Aboriginal communities. For the second course, to the surprise of the non-Aborigines involved, they picked two women, and another woman is a trainee in the third course. However, before the local Aboriginal communities could select trainees for the original course, they needed to be informed about what a national park was, and how such a park would be managed. It was decided that Ian Morris, the newly appointed training officer of ANPWS, should visit each community and outstation group in the region. During these visits he would discuss the park and the role of a park ranger, and also the desire of each group for Aboriginal involvement in management of the park. In Ian Morris' words: 'Most of the older people had no idea of what a national park was. There were no national parks as such to be seen in the region .

* From Unesco Review No 8, May 1983.

At the conclusion of each of these visits Morris suggested that the community might consider younger people as possible ranger trainee candidates.

For all three courses nominations of candidates came from the local Aboriginal communities, and representatives of these communities made the final choice. The Northern Land Council also provided representatives for the selection committee for the first two courses. For the first one, six candidates were chosen, but it became clear during the months that followed that this was too many. In subsequent programs the number of trainees has been cut to four. Interest among the Aboriginal communities has grown to such an extent that the four trainees for the current course had to be chosen from a short list of twenty candidates.

The aims of the Kakadu Aboriginal training programs, as set out during the planning period in 1978, have been to provide:

* the necessary basis in knowledge, practice and skills for the planning and management of Kakadu National Park;
* an opportunity for Aboriginal people to effectively express their land management ethics in the maintenance, protection and preservation of the park; and
* for the park as an effective vehicle to interpret the indigenous culture for non-Aboriginal Australians.

However, deciding on the content of the course and making it run smoothly presented a great challenge - this was the first full training program of its kind in Australia. In Morris's words again:

> 'In designing a course of this nature, there was very little experience or reference material available on which we could draw. Ranger training courses within Australia were still at an embryonic stage. What was required in Kakadu was a locally based intensive training program of 12 months duration to prepare Aboriginal people for a greater participation in the management of the park.

Much of the credit for the success of both courses so far completed must go to Ian Morris, who had to carry much of the organisation and teaching load in a very isolated area. But neither course could have succeeded without the enthusiastic

support of ANPWS staff both in the park and at the Service's Canberra headquarters, who gladly gave their time.

As may be expected, the ANPWS Aboriginal Ranger Training Program provides training in such practical skills as operating mechanical equipment. In addition, the Service broadens the trainees' understanding of the purpose of national parks by ensuring that, as a group, they spend several weeks visiting national parks in other parts of Australia. However, the main thrust of the program has been directed towards re-establishing the self-esteem of the trainees and the Aboriginal communities from which they come.

The Gunwinggu-speaking people of Arnhem Land often talk of the contrast between the personal outwardness and motivation of north-eastern Arnhem-landers (who have had relatively little contact with Europeans) and the more shy and introverted nature of people in western Arnhem land. In Morris's view:

> "It is quite clear that the Aboriginal population of the Alligator Rivers Region, like those of many other parts of Australia, has been significantly demoralised by the presence and pressure of white society. Individuals adopt an unnaturally humbled and perhaps degraded view of themselves in relation to the rest of Northern Territory society".

Nevertheless, the culture of the local Aborigines gives them a deep understanding of the ecology of the region, and Morris believes that the traditional land owners are hoping that ANPWS will assist them in realising their goal of preserving their environment and culture. Kakadu National Park was established to preserve the environment of the park, upon which the Aboriginal culture is superimposed. It was also established to perpetuate and promote traditional Aboriginal cultural values within the region to the benefit of those Australians living outside. To achieve the goals of both the Aboriginal communities and ANPWS in Kakadu National Park, young Aboriginal ranger staff must be convinced that the culture and accumulated knowledge of their forebears are still important.

Allowing the trainees and other Aborigines within the park to regain their self-esteem has been a two-way process from which European staff working in the park have benefited enormously. In particular, the European staff has come to realise the remarkable depth of knowledge that their Aboriginal hosts have about their environment. An incident told by Ian Morris illustrates this depth of knowledge:

I was walking along the beach with a bunch of very young kids. Then all of a sudden, they pointed to some tracks and asked me what they meant. I thought that seeing as I'd worked at the University of N.S.W. School of Zoology, I'd be very cunning. I looked at it and declared they were the tracks of an agile wallaby. The kids agreed, but I'd very obviously missed the point somewhere. What it boiled down to was that obviously they were the tracks of the agile, it was the only macropod on the island. But the message they read was that a female agile wallaby with a pouch young went down onto the rocks the previous night after the tide had gone out...there's tracks going both ways there...and was following the scent of fresh water. The kids took me down the rocks and we tasted the spring below the present wave levels, and it was fresh.

That came from kids 5 and 6 years old! Little kids in the pre-school years can go out and tell you all the names of plants, insects and animals. Behind each Aboriginal is an environmental encyclopaedia. When these kids went on to high school they kept this knowledge to themselves...they were embarrassed by it, because it was 'bushy'.

Obviously, with such knowledge already stored within the minds of the trainees, traditional European style ranger training programs with their emphasis on theoretical studies of biology would be inappropriate. Indeed, studies of how Aborigines learn show that any educator who assumed that the teaching processes used in suburban Sydney will be as effective in Arnhem Land is going to complicate his task right from the outset. Traditionally, Northern Territory Aborigines have learned:

* through personal trial and error rather than from verbal instruction;
* by performing tasks in real life rather than in simulated situations;
* by mastering skills for use in specific contexts rather than general principles; and
* by following the actions of other people rather than concentrating on information.

Thus they learn by observation and imitation, usually in a one learner to one 'teacher' relationship. For Aborigines learning is a very personal process, and consequently in a

European 'schoolroom' they may uncritically accept what a teacher tells them.

Educators generally agree that European learners usually begin analysing, hypothesising and synthesising abstract ideas from about 8 years of age. Experienced teachers of Aborigines observe that Aboriginal learners, on the other hand, often do not begin doing these things until they are young adults. However, Aborigines retain the skills of observation, recall and comparison, inference and prediction throughout their adult lives. By contrast, most Europeans lose them through disuse and isolation from the surrounding environment at an early age. Thus while Europeans tend to develop ideas from theoretical principles, Aborigines usually develop them by moving from the observable known to the unknown.

For a European trainee ranger any course designed to achieve the aims of the Kakadu Aboriginal Ranger Training Program would contain such theoretical content as the concept, philosophy and function of a national park, the principles of public relations, the basis of scientific method, and the role of a ranger in an Australian national park. For the Aboriginal trainees these ideas have needed to be delivered by building onto their knowledge of their environment and social patterns. This meant that the training officer had to make the effort to develop a deep and personal understanding of each trainee) hence the need to reduce the number from six to four). Achieving this has meant avoiding the artificial 'school' atmosphere - indeed the process has, perhaps, represented the reverse of Western teaching techniques where the teacher expects the pupils to strive to attain his or her own standards.

As training officer, Ian Morris sees himself as an organiser of knowledge rather than a Western-style teacher. The fact that you may meet several of the eight now fully trained Aboriginal rangers if you visit Kakadu National Park attests to the success of this approach.